

Training for
Teaching
in India
& England

D'SOUZA &
CHATTERJEE



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TRAINING FOR TEACHING
IN
INDIA AND ENGLAND

TRAINING FOR TEACHING IN INDIA AND ENGLAND

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PREFACE

THIS book, in its two parts, presents a comparative study of the existing position of the training of teachers in India and England. Progressive countries to-day are becoming keenly alive to the importance of improving the school-teaching personnel, and attempts are being made to raise the quality and standard of instruction, by giving teachers better, longer and more varied training, as well as more attractive pay and conditions of service. Various benefits, such as in-service training, continued education, exchange and secondment and study-leave are offered to teachers, in order to bring greater interest, variety and freshness into the profession of pedagogy. The actual procedure of training teachers is also undergoing considerable improvement, based on recent findings of educational psychology as also on the experience gathered from comprehensive experiments in educational administration. After the momentous Education Act of 1944 in England, the MacNair Committee fully recast the provisions for training teachers prevailing up to that time. In India, too, with her mighty political change, the entire educational system, especially that in schools, is being thoroughly revised, and the question of teachers, their training, efficiency and numerical adequacy, has necessarily to be examined from fresh angles. Both these countries are at very interesting phases of their educational history, particularly in so far as the condition of their school-teachers is concerned; and the two authors have attempted to present a survey of each, and indicate in what direction the progress goes on. They

have to acknowledge their indebtedness to numerous **books**, official reports and sources from which they collected **their** material. They earnestly hope that the book will be **found** useful by all those who are interested in the educational development of the two countries.

CALCUTTA, 1956

THE AUTHORS

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INTRODUCTION

No system of education can rise above the level of the teachers who serve it.¹

We live in a revolutionary period of History. All our values, all our ways of existence are being challenged. Upon the choice we and our children make a fateful future hangs. How can we equip those children to choose wisely, and then to act with effective intelligence? It is evident that we be clear as to our basic values... and that we must understand the social facts of our time. Then we must obtain schools in which our children can learn those values, to deal with those facts. But if this is to be done, teachers who can create such schools must be produced. This is the task of Teacher Education.²

The fundamental requirement of any comprehensive development in the educational system is the provision of an adequate establishment of teachers, and of the necessary institution for training them. The latter ought not only to provide the requisite professional training, but should also inculcate a way of life which will attract, and make its mark on the young man and woman who intends to be a teacher.³

We are convinced that the most important factor in the contemplated educational reconstruction is the teacher—his personal qualities, his educational qualifications, his professional training, and the place he occupies in the school as well as in the Community.⁴

The aim of all training colleges is to produce good teachers. What this connotes in terms of qualities, skill, and knowledge, is not easy to define. Our notion of what makes a good teacher depends partly on our conception of education and

¹ H. C. Dent, *To Be a Teacher*.

² "Teachers for Our Times", *Report of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council of Education*, 1944.

³ "Post-War Educational Development in India", *Report of the Central Advisory Board of Education*, 1944.

⁴ *Report of the Secondary Education Commission*, 1953.

its functions in society, and partly upon the age, ability and aptitudes of the children, or adults, the teacher is to educate. If education is identified with "Instruction in the elements of reading, writing, and arithmetic," then a good teacher is obviously one who leaves the training college with a full knapsack of facts, and the "techniques" for imparting these with the maximum of skill and efficiency. Such was the ideal till the beginning of the century.

But, in recent times, education has come to mean much more than mere instruction. It is now conceived as the total process of helping a child to grow to full maturity of body, mind, and spirit, in and through the life of the community, in order that he may be able to play a full and creative part as a member of the society in which he lives—a process that covers not only the few years he is at school but the whole of his allotted span of "three score and ten years." As the University Education Commission says, "Education is a means by which society perpetuates itself." In order that a teacher can perform the many and diverse functions that such a view of Education demands, it is essential that he himself must be an educated person in the richest sense of the word, a fully-developed, well-rounded and many-sided personality; an accomplished craftsman with the dash of an artist in his make-up.

"The era of the Training of Teachers is past, our business is with the Education of the Educator. Teachers today, as the MacNair Report insists throughout, need to be educated and trained, training being that part of their education which equips them with what the Americans call the "know-how" of their specific job. It has been customary in the past to separate the general education of a teacher from his professional training, and to divide his preparation into two more or less distinct and self-contained parts.

This rigid division is dangerous, and the distinction between the parts artificial. Any study, skill, or activity which contributes to the general education of the teacher, contributes simultaneously to his professional efficiency and anything that makes him a more skilful and competent teacher is a part of his General Education. Hence, there is a tendency to drop the terms "general" and "professional" and to talk simply of teacher education or the education of the teacher as a person.

"The best preparation for a young person of 16 or upwards who desires to be a teacher is a course of study and activity that will develop his mind and body...spirit."
(The MacNair Committee).

This is an ideal we heartily endorse. In the chapters that follow we shall endeavour to examine critically to what extent the training colleges in England and in India are in fact providing this kind of preparation and turning out the right type of teachers.

PART ONE

TRAINING FOR TEACHING
IN ENGLAND

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TO DAD
WHO WAS A GOOD MAN
AND A GREAT TEACHER

CHAPTER I

THE CHANGING FACE AND FUNCTIONS OF THE TWO-YEAR TRAINING COLLEGES: 1870-1950

A NATION's idea of the manner, in which its teachers should be educated and trained, will be largely determined by its conception of their place and function in society, and this in turn is dependent on its understanding of the aims, nature and content of education. The wider and deeper a nation's connotation of this much abused word, and of the full implications of the Platonic dictum that "Education is the basis of the State," the clearer will be its realization of the importance, the difficulty and the complexity of the teacher's task, and the greater its stress on the quality and character of his preparation. If teachers in the past have neither been given their true place in society, nor adequate training for their high calling, it is mainly because the nations of the world have not realized — or if they have, have done so only in theory — the true nature, scope and importance of education and its essential functions in society.

In England, as in most other countries, education has, in spite of much lip-service, been regarded till recent times as a more or less necessary evil, and kept subservient to the political and economic functions of government. Only recently has it achieved partial emancipation and, for the first time, under the "direction and control" of a responsible minister (instead of the "supervision" of a president of a board) attained the doubtful equality of a "poor relation" with the other branches of government. This poor conception of compulsory "elementary" education has had its inevitable repercussion in the lowly status of the

“elementary” teacher in the public eye, and the element of meanness and cheapness that has characterized his training. Dent stresses this unhappy fact in no uncertain terms.¹

Yet there are signs of a welcome change of heart. Better and more dynamic conception of education is slowly but surely emerging, and with it a new awareness of the vital and many-sided functions of the teacher, and the need for ensuring that the length and quality of his preparation will adequately equip him, personally and professionally to fulfil his mission.

“Upon the education of this country, the future of this country depends” were the unequivocal and impressive opening lines of the preamble to the 1944 Education Act, which was hailed as the corner-stone of an edifice of reconstruction that would change the face of post-war Britain. If the Act was to be translated into reality, it was obvious that the teachers of tomorrow would have to be, in Prof. Kandell’s words, “the Philosopher-Kings of the modern world”, for educational progress comes not through Acts of Parliament but from the teachers who man the schools. To secure the right type of entrants to the profession, and to educate them adequately, thus became in England prime considerations; teacher training, after being in the backwaters of educational reform for a long time, became the burning question of the day.

This was as it should be. The fly-wheel of the whole educational machine is the teacher. The standard of work of

¹ Dent, *To be a Teacher*, p. 6: “Despite the clouds of uplift that emanate from public platforms about the dignity, nobility, high value and so on and so forth of the teacher’s job, in fact too low an estimate is put on it by society in general, and the politicians in particular. Consequently far too low a standard is set for entry into the profession, the training of the teacher is pitched at too low a level and the standard of efficiency demanded of him is too low.”

the teachers determines the height to which any scheme of Public Education can rise. Elaborate blueprints, modern school palaces, the best of equipment, the newest of the "New Media," or the most "progressive" of methods, will remain dead fossils unless the right type of teacher breathes life and spirit into them, giving their bones flesh and blood. In the "Century of the Child" when some extremists would banish the teacher from the classroom, or reduce him to a mere "observer," it is necessary to emphasize this fact. The teacher is not, and can never be, a mere neutral observer of the child's growth and development. Whether he likes it or not, the part he plays is a much more positive one; it is he who consciously or unconsciously, plays the major role, after the parents, not only in instructing the child, but in shaping his attitudes, habits and ideals. In this sense, teachers are the makers of tomorrow, for as the twig is bent so will it grow. This is a tremendous responsibility, an opportunity and a challenge. Teachers must be conscious of their high calling as guardians of the past and builders of the future—and society must recognize this illuminating truth and honour them for it—for, as the old Chinese proverb says:

If you wish to plan for one year plant grain,
 If you wish to plan for ten years plant trees,
 If you wish to plan for a hundred years plant men.

A rapid survey of the training of "elementary" teachers in England till the present day will, perhaps, best reveal how long drawn-out, and how slow, has been the process of according the teacher his rightful place in society; how inadequate has been the idea of his function in society, and how mean the quality, and quantity, of the training given to him. Though progress in all these interrelated directions

has been slow, it has nevertheless been sure; and the day is perhaps not too far off when teaching, if not the "doyen" of the professions, will at least win complete equality with them in status and in the quality and length of its preparation. To achieve its present point, however, has been an uphill fight, and many battles have to be fought and won before it achieves this coveted position.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN THE 19TH CENTURY

In the 19th century elementary education meant instruction, "information mongering" as Sir John Adams calls it, in the elements of the 3 R's. Schools were "knowledge shops," teachers "information mongers" who were "paid by results" on their ability to "sell" predigested facts to the hordes of children of the "labouring poor" who, till 1870, were compelled to attend school from the age of 5 to 12. Hence the first training colleges were "wholesale shops" where teachers acquired, in the shortest possible time, a double dose of "useful" facts which they disgorged to their customers through retailers—"the monitors," who acted as "go-betweens" between the teachers and the children. Their training was simple, short and economical. They learnt their lessons, and were taught the "method", or a few cut and dried techniques, by which to impart them with the maximum of speed and efficiency. Thus were born the "general" and "professional" aspects of the training of elementary teachers which persist till today. The emphasis was on the latter, teachers needed to be trained not educated, "humble, industrious and instructed".

This pattern of the twin aspects of training was adopted by the first two-year college—Battersea under Kaye-Shuttleworth. The formation of character, a slightly better general education, and a "training in the method and

principles of teaching" were the founder's modest aims, and to achieve them he lengthened Lancaster's 3-6 months course to 18 months. Though Kaye-Shuttleworth insisted on a higher standard of general education for the students under training, he insisted even more on their professional training. And his view of this was strictly limited—he concentrated on the "practices of education" rather than its underlying principles. Hence, the predominance of the "Master of Method" who in the model school demonstrated narrow and stereotyped techniques of imparting information which the students later attempted to copy as best they could.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING: 1890-1914

The narrow conception of the training of an elementary teacher remained as long as education meant instruction, and the teacher, like Dickens' McChoakum-Child, was compelled to swallow "gallons of imperial facts" which he later poured into an unwilling John. The master taught his "subjects" with zeal and efficiency; the pupil was secondary, an animated sponge. The gradual drawing together of the elementary and secondary schools in the last decade of the 17th century, and the raising of the school-leaving age to 13, led to an extension of the elementary curriculum beyond the narrow limits of the 3 R's as new subjects like History, Geography, and Nature Study were added. But as the pocket-encyclopædic text-books of the period show, the main emphasis remained on facts, and more facts, in all types of schools. The emergence of still more "new" subjects and of newer, more voluminous, and more detailed text-books soon carried this process to its logical extreme. Saturation point was reached and educationists realized there was a limit to what "one small

head" could hold, whether it belonged to the teacher or to the child. Heart searching resulted, there was a shift of perspective, and progressive educationists, especially on the continent, began to question the theory, for long tacitly accepted, that knowledge and facts were, by themselves, a panacea for all the ills of life. Pestalozzi³ pleaded for a complete reversal of values, putting the child and not the subject at the centre of the educational picture; Herbert and Froebel were even more opposed to the current theory of forcible fact—feeding. Enlightened thinkers in England, like Herbert Spencer, Locke and Matthew Arnold, gave an English twist to their theories of child-nurture, while practical geniuses, like Dr. Thomas Arnold of Rugby and Thring of Uppingham, began a revolution in the practice of education which, beginning in the Public Schools, in time filtered through the grammar into the elementary schools.

A new conception of education was born, or rather the Greek ideal of *mens sana in corpore sano* was reborn, reinterpreted and Christianized. The aim of education was not merely to instruct but to form character, and develop an all-round personality. Thus education for Herbert Spencer meant physical, intellectual and moral formation, for Matthew Arnold the transmission of culture, and for his father, Dr. Arnold of Rugby, the formation of the "Christian Gentleman". Since the administrators of elementary education came from the Public Schools, it was not long before this "ideal" was transferred to the elementary schools, finding its best expression in the famous Code of 1901, which marks a landmark in the history of elementary education in England. The aim of education was defined as

to form and strengthen the character, and to develop the intelligence of children entrusted to it, and to make the best

use of the school years available in assisting both boys and girls, according to their different needs, to fit themselves, practically as well as intellectually, for the work of life.

High sounding words indeed! The reality was often painfully different, but the ideal is far removed from "instruction in the elements of reading, writing and arithmetic."

This insistence on education as the formation of character, training of the mind and as a preparation for life, could not but affect the training colleges which were producing the teachers expected to make this ideal a reality. *Nemo dat quid non habet*, unless the teachers themselves were of formed character, trained intelligence, and well-shaped and stable personality, they could not hope to initiate and help children in the difficult art of growing into physical, intellectual and moral maturity. Besides, it became necessary, for the first time, not only to know their subject but to understand the child; the teacher had to know both John and Latin. Far-reaching changes became necessary in the training colleges. Hence, both the general and professional training of the teacher were extended and liberalized, and psychology made its appearance in the professional curriculum.

The founding of the London Day Training College in 1890, followed by the setting up of training departments in most universities, hastened the liberalizing of both the two-year training colleges, and the elementary schools fed by them, thus acknowledging the fact that even secondary teachers need training, and that, since many of the graduates trained by them were forced to teach in elementary schools, the elementary teacher would be the better teacher if his general education was improved. Many trained graduates also found their way into the two-year training

colleges, and they at once raised the standard and quality of their education and training. The University Training Departments thus mark an important milestone in the history of training of teachers in England; they struck the first blows at the heresies—that secondary teachers need not be trained and that elementary teachers need not be educated—to which the MacNair Committee has administered the *coup de grâce*. This liaison between the two types of training in England was in part the outcome of, and in part hastened, the drawing together of the elementary and secondary schools themselves. These were finally joined “in an uneasy partnership” by the Education Act of 1902—a union that was heralded in spirit by the new conception of elementary education contained in the 1901 Code. This Act by making possible a full secondary education for all intending teachers, prior to entry into the training college, guaranteed them that foundation which was indispensable if the two-year training colleges were to be in some position to achieve their new objectives—to train and educate their students, to impart knowledge, form character, and develop personality.

A definite move towards this end was the discouragement of the pupil-teacher system which generally resulted in half-trained and half-educated teachers, and the new Training College Code issued by the Board of Education in 1904. This Code remodelled the old training college curriculum on more generous and less rigid lines, allowing students a greater measure of choice so that they could, to some extent, adapt the curriculum to their individual needs and abilities, instead of fitting themselves to a procrustean bed. This acknowledgment of personal choice and individual differences, coupled with the comparative freedom of the training college from external control,

enabled individual colleges to shape their own growth, and develop a life and spirit of their own. Accordingly from 1904 to 1908, interrupted only by the war, the two-year colleges began an era of experiment and consolidation during which their dual sides, general and professional, were adapted and modified to meet the new conception of "education as an all-round development of the child", and the relation between them was subject to continuous flux, a shifting of emphasis from the one to the other. Side by side with this varying emphasis, however, was a more steady movement—the gradual broadening and deepening of the dual aspect of a teacher's preparation so that, while the form remained unchanged, the content of the general education and professional training of the teacher were very different in 1918 from what they were in 1890.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING: 1918-1939

But while training colleges were experimenting with, refining, and developing their ideas on the training and education appropriate for a teacher to fit him for his vocation, educational theory was once more the melting pot. The 1914-18 War forced people to reconsider their educational objectives, values, and standards which, as a result of this revaluation, were found to be wanting in many particulars. The accepted aim, content method, and organization of education was once more questioned, and in some cases refashioned or scrapped; changes took place in all aspects of education which in time affected the training colleges.

It would be impossible even to mention the many new developments which changed the face of educational theory and practice in England in the period between the wars, or to assess the individual contributions made by doctors, psychologists of all types and schools, philosophers,

sociologists, administrators, and last but not least, practising teachers, to the "New Education". Sir John Adams sums up much of what underlay all the changes in his ugly neologism "paidocentrism," or "child-centred" education, by insisting that the teacher must know John as well as Latin, and the former was by far the more important. Sir Percy Nunn, the leading educational philosopher in England, elaborated this idea in his classic *Education—its Data and First Principles*, and put forward a wealth of biological, philosophical and psychological data in support of his thesis that "individuality is the ideal of life," and that education must accordingly aim at the fullest possible development of all the potentialities of every single child, physical, intellectual and moral, irrespective of whether he was "brainy," or not. As a correlative and corrective to this overemphasis on the individual came John Dewey's definition of education in terms of social living, and this emphasis on the need for "education for democracy". Meanwhile doctors and psycho-analysts claimed that the child's physical and mental health was, especially in early childhood, not only one of the essential aims of education, but a precondition for the realization of its other aims; and psychologists observed and recorded the child's characteristic instincts, interests at the different stages of his growth and development from birth to maturity, and stressed the necessity of fitting education, at each stage, to their findings.

All these floating ideas were gathered up, systematized and expressed in the historic series of Hadow Reports on the nursery school, the primary school and the famous "Education of the Adolescent". The first two reports drew attention to the special needs of children at each of these stages of growth, emphasized strongly the vital importance

of education in early childhood, and the fact that "education consists of experience and activity and not only of facts to be learnt and knowledge to be acquired." The Report on "The Education of the Adolescent" struck a death blow to the old parallelism between elementary and secondary schools. "The development of various types of senior schools and "higher tops" within the elementary system which were in fact supplying a type of secondary education, had made this parallelism obsolete and meaningless. For the term "secondary education" was, in practice, identified with "grammar school education", only, the report substituted "post-primary," a new and essential stage in the development of every child requiring new types of schools, new curricula and methods. Hence the Committee laid down that at the age of 14 there should be a clear-cut plan for all children, who would then proceed to some type of "post-primary education" which the Committee held to be the birthright of every child. This notion of different types of post-primary education was further clarified by the famous Spen's Report (1938) which first used the term "secondary" to cover all types of post-primary education. This new re-interpretation of education as a unity embracing the whole life of the child, and of secondary education as a new stage in and not a new type of education, was slowly translated into terms of new schools, new curricula and new methods. Yet "Hadow reorganization" did in fact, slowly but surely, take place between 1931-1939. The Committee's recommendations and their implications were most fully worked out in the nursery and infant schools where an entirely new conception of education in terms of the all-round welfare of young children through an activity programme was born. From this growing point, it began to move upwards and in fact, not so much in the primary schools which were

strait-jacketed by the Special Place examination requirement, but the new Central and Modern Schools which were free from the examination bogey. These schools, the Spen's Report had suggested, should give "a general education with a realistic and practical bias," and many of these schools with this goal in view worked out new curricula adapted to the needs and interests of their pupils, and vital new methods such as "centres of interest," projects, use of the new media, and other forms of "learning by doing".

The training colleges, which are in the last analysis responsible for initiating and guiding educational reforms in a country, could not remain indifferent to these far-reaching changes in the theory and practice of education. In an article on the "Training of Teachers in England and Scotland" in the *Year Book of Education*, 1932, Sir T. P. Nunn stated:

meanwhile the old elementary school system with which the two-year colleges are so closely integrated is being transformed along the line of the first and second Hadow Report. It is not possible that changes so drastic in the schools they serve should not be reflected in the training colleges. At the moment there are visible in the training colleges the uncertainty of aim and lack of a definite policy that are inevitable in a time of transition. But as the reorganization of the school system develops a corresponding new orientation in the training college system will necessarily follow.¹

This new orientation was gradually working itself out in the training colleges in the years between the Hadow and Spen's Reports and the outbreak of the Second World War. The general education of the teacher at school and in the

¹ Nunn, "The Training of Teachers in England and Scotland"—*Year Book of Education*, 1932, p. 463.

training college was extended, deepened and individualized. On the professional side, psychology ceased to be academic and concentrated on the developmental study of the child and the study of individual differences, maladjustments and abnormalities of one kind or another. The aims of education stressed the necessity of developing the child fully in and for a society. Teacher training, while maintaining a solid common code, began to be more differentiated to suit the requirements of teachers for the various "age groups", and special colleges for the training of nursery and infant teachers emerged, such as the Rachel MacMillan and Gypsy Hill, which extended their course of training to three years. Aided by this extra year, such colleges made rapid progress, but most of the other colleges though hampered by too short a time in which to do too much, inadequate staffing, too great an isolation from the university on the one hand and the schools and the community at large on the other, and finally by their inferior status also made considerable headway. Buildings and equipment were modernized and the number and quality of their staffs improved, while increased financial help to the colleges themselves, and the students in training, freed them from the atmosphere of meanness and cheapness that lay like a blight on the elementary schools. Their curricula, on the general and professional sides, were revised continually and brought up to date, and an even greater measure of personal choice was allowed to students to pursue their personal interests and develop their individual talents. Psychology became not only more functional, but was made more vital by being based on actual observations on children in varied situations. Practice teaching became less formal and imitative, and the linking of subject matter and method was made possible and by specialist lecturers who taught their subjects,

and showed how to teach them, concurrently. New methods cutting across subject barriers were experimented with, and students encouraged to use them. Methods of instruction and discipline were also brought into line with the "New Education". In the schools progressive thinkers were urging that the child must not be crammed with predigested knowledge but encouraged to find out things for itself, and to apply its knowledge to changing situations—this view was soon reflected in the training colleges where it was realized that students must not be merely lectured at and regimented, but guided, through tutorials and seminars, to seek truth for themselves, to develop initiative, self-reliance and independence, to learn how to think and study, and to work out their own personal experience, and it was realized that only by sharing in such experiences themselves would students be able "to prepare" pupils to play their part in a developing society, in all life's varied activities.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING : 1939-1949

During the war years, the stresses and strains of evacuation, and the calling up of the majority of the students and lecturers for active service, prevented training colleges from progressing much along these lines—though many new ideas such as "The Children's Play Centre" were born accidentally in trying to meet emergency situations. But educational theory was once more in a state of ferment. War always brings men up against fundamental issues, and shows up the strength and weaknesses of their ideas and institutions. It is not surprising then that the whole educational set-up in England began to be rationally and critically re-evaluated, and its basic pre-suppositions challenged. Under the stresses of war which were shared

by everyone equally, it was realized that the old "selective" system was unfair and that all children had the right to the fullest possible education suited to their age, ability and aptitudes. Such education was essential, not only for their own individual betterment but in order that they might make their full contribution to the welfare of all. Education began to be conceived as a function of society and eminent thinkers like Prof. Mannheim in his *Diagnosis of Our Time*, and Sir Fred Clarke in *Education and Social Change*, began to work out the vast implications of this new conception of education as a social service. Such an education, it was realized, could not be static, or of the "ivory tower" type; and the old distinction between cultural and vocational education became meaningless. Dent sums up the essence of the new ideas current during the war years:

whereas education was formerly concerned with only part of a child — his brain — now it is concerned with the whole child, body, mind and spirit and not only with the child as an individual but the child in relation to society in which he is born and brought up and of which he will shortly become a full and — it is hoped — creative member.¹

Such an education could not be given in the few years a child was at school or at college, it must be a continuous process, in successive stages, from the cradle to the grave, and at all stages it must be adapted to the age, ability and aptitudes of every individual child. This is broadly the conception of education embodied in the Education Act, 1944, the greatest educational charter of modern times. Gathering up not only the education theories that had appeared and been fermenting in England during the War

¹ Dent, *To be a Teacher*.

years, but all that was best in the preceding 25 years, the Act defined education as a continuous process in three successive stages, primary, secondary and further. The old disparate and overlapping system of elementary and secondary schools was thus finally abolished, and, in future, children at all stages, would be given an education suited to their age, ability and aptitudes.

This re-definition of the essential unity and continuity of the educational process involved a new conception of the nature, functions and importance of the teaching profession as a whole. The old distinction between elementary and secondary teachers became arbitrary and unjust. If education was a unified process it implied a unified teaching profession. If education was a continuous and inter-related process then teachers at all stages were doing equally important work, and were dependent one on the other. Hence all teachers needed adequate preparation, similar in quality though diverse in type, and parity of salaries, status and conditions of service. In essence a new type of teacher was needed, not a school-master but a life-master. "Teacher no longer rings true, it no longer describes the real character and work of those to whom we entrust the upbringing of our children; it smacks too much of instruction, of the *ex-cathedra* attitude and the dominie's desk, and neglects far too much those far more educative activities that go on outside the classroom and the lessons learnt, perhaps from an environment material, intellectual moral, and spiritual, which it is the first duty of the school to create." And this new type of teacher needed a new type of preparation to develop him as a man and a teacher through a continuous and integrated process of education in school, college and in service.

The actual position in the profession was very different.

Hence about the time the White Paper on Educational Reconstruction was in the chrysalis stage, the Minister of Education, Mr. R. A. Butler, appointed an expert Committee, under Sir A. MacNair to enquire into the "Selection, Recruitment and Training" of the teachers who would be needed to work the proposed act. When the Committee began its investigations in 1944, it soon discovered the teaching profession in a chaotic state and quite ill-adjusted to meet the demands of the 1944 Act. A unified educational service needed a unified profession, whereas there were two almost distinct professions in existence, the elementary and the secondary, with few points of contact between them. Elementary teachers, it was held or implied, needed to be trained but not educated, secondary teachers to be educated, training not being considered necessary. Two separate salary scales emphasized the division between them. Secondary teachers were, for the most part, educated at the university and trained at the University Training Department, Elementary teachers were trained and educated concurrently at the two-years colleges, in isolation from the universities and from other institutions connected with teacher education. Hence there was considerable difference in the length and quality of the preparation given to the two main branches of the profession which was reflected in their different social status and prestige. Other anomalies existed. Art schools, technical institutions, physical training colleges etc. which played an important part in the education and training of "specialists" in these subjects for the schools had no place in the training system which probably accounted for the fact that the practical and aesthetic subjects tended to be regarded as "extras" or "ornaments" in the secondary school curriculum, and as "luxuries" in the elementary schools.

Local education authorities, schools, and others interested in the training of teachers also had no share in their preparation, and, far from cooperating, they were often hostile in their attitude to the training colleges. All these factors made the Committee realize that no half measures would cure the existing ills. Hence they determined "to bring about a thorough overhaul and recasting of the national training system, especially in so far as it affected the backbone of that system—the two-year colleges. The Committee made an almost complete break with the past in its re-evaluation and reform of aims, curricula and organization of the training colleges.

"It is clear to me," wrote H. C. Dent, shortly before the publication of the MacNair Report, "that since revolutionary changes are taking place in the purpose, content, methods and organization of education, equally revolutionary changes must take place in the training of teachers."¹ The last place from which such a revolution could be expected was "official sources". Yet "revolutionary" is the only word that sums up the approach of the MacNair Committee to the problem of teacher training, and its main recommendations for reform. Lack of professional status; poor quality preparation; divisions, fissures and castes within the profession; lack of coordination between the various stages of a teacher's preparation — these were the main deficiencies the Committee set itself to remedy. To do so, it placed before training college authorities, the teaching profession as a whole, and society in general three main goals:

(1) The standing of education and the status of the teaching profession as a whole, had to be raised if it was to attract and keep the right sort of human beings and the right sort of teachers. Existing injustices and disparities, financial

¹ Dent, *To be a Teacher*, PS.

and otherwise, between primary and secondary teachers must be removed and parity of esteem and treatment given to all branches of the profession for they were engaged in equally important and virtually dependent work. Teachers must be encouraged to form "one profession" and present a united front to society if they are to win their rightful place in it.

(2) All teachers needed not only to be trained but educated — the phrase "education of the teacher" appears for the first time in an official report. Hence the length and quality of the training given, especially in the two-year colleges, should be improved. The Committee placed special emphasis on the personal education of the students trained in these colleges.

We must ensure that those who intend to be teachers have the chance to enjoy a period of education and training which, above all else will encourage them to live a full life themselves so that they will contribute to the young, something that arises as much from a varied personal experience as from professional studies.¹

(3) These objects, to secure unity, raise the status of the profession and improve the quality of its preparation, could, in the opinion of the most influential section of the Committee,² only be achieved if the universities undertook the primary responsibility for the supervision and direction of all training, at the University Training Departments and in the two-year colleges, in their respective areas, integrating all available training resources and bringing them to bear on the vitally important business of educating the teachers who would be responsible for rebuilding the war-shattered world.

¹ *Teachers and Youth Leaders*, p. 7.

² The Authors of Scheme A which has been generally accepted.

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These were the ideals the MacNair Committee set before those mainly concerned with the training of teachers—the schools, the training colleges, the universities and other interested parties. The Committee's recommendations were not wholly new or unexpected—they summed up tendencies and views which had been taking shape in training colleges during the war years. The Committee, however, gathered up, clarified, and gave unequivocal and challenging expression to these views, setting before the training colleges the guiding lines of a policy which will take many years to make its full weight felt in the training colleges, and still more time before it bears fruit in a new type of teacher or education.

Meanwhile the teacher scene, especially that important section of it in the two-year colleges which trains the majority of the teachers for the state schools, is in a state of flux which makes it difficult to estimate its present strength and weaknesses, or to predict what mould it will finally carve out for itself. Many of the recommendations of the Committee have already been implemented. The salary, status and conditions of service of the two-year trained teacher have been improved, and the major obstacles to equality of status with his secondary colleagues have been, for the most part, removed. Existing barriers to unity have been broken down and the ideal of "one profession" is within sight. The equality of the teacher's general and professional education has been enormously modified and improved, and a conscious and deliberate effort is being made to integrate these diverse and often conflicting elements to promote his education as a person; and while the three-year course which is essential to make this possible is not yet an accomplished fact, it has been accepted in principle. University institutes of education have come into existence

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CHANGING FACE AND FUNCTIONS OF TWO-YEAR TRAINING 21
all over England, and their liberalizing influence is already
being felt in the two-year colleges and will, I am sure,
in a few years change the entire face of teacher education
in England.

In the remaining chapters we shall attempt a critical and
detailed examination of the main features and aspects of
the two-year training college scene in England today,
endeavouring to assess its strength and weaknesses, and to
trace the direction in which it is progressing, and in which it
should progress, in order to produce the type of human
being and educator which the MacNair Committee envi-
sages and which the modern world needs so badly.

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CHAPTER II

SELECTION OF INTENDING TEACHERS FOR THE TWO-YEAR COLLEGES

To obtain the best possible teachers for our children is an intrinsic interest and obligation of education. No professional responsibility is greater than that of having to do with the selection of teacher personnel.¹

NO PROBLEM in the training college world is so urgently in need of a solution, and so difficult to solve as that of selecting the right type of teacher potential for the two-year college. Selection is of vital importance in all professions to prevent maladjustment, waste, inefficiency and harm both to the individual and to the community; it is, at least, of equal importance in teaching not only because "the wastage in the teacher's workshop is the lives of men", but, because, unless the training colleges get the right material, training will not be justified in her children. The quality of education in a country depends on the quality of her teachers, which, in turn depends on the nature of their preparation, and this preparation is largely conditioned by the quality of the students; first class teachers cannot be made out of third class material.

Unless we improve substantially the quality of the teaching force and above all see that only men and women fitted by temperament, character, intelligence and attitude to teaching are allowed to become teachers, we may look, but we shall look in vain, for any reform in education, however much we may improve the organization, plant and amenities of the public system of education.²

In England selection for teaching is also important for

¹ *Appraising Teacher Personnel*. Report of the American Council of Education, 1947.

² Dent, *To be a Teacher*, p. 29.

another reason. Students enter other professions largely at their own risk and cost, and, in the competitive market of the world, only the fittest survive. But most training college students get grants from L. E. A's or the Ministry, and once they qualify, they expect the State to place and maintain them in service. A feeling is fast growing up among many people, concerned with the training and professional standards of teaching, that it has become too much of a soft option and too secure a job. Unless proper safeguards are adopted to see that only the fit enter and are allowed to remain in the profession, there is a danger that the status of the profession as a whole may be affected.

A third factor that makes adequate selection necessary is the fact that selection predictions are in point of fact being made in training colleges all over England. The need to make these selections as reliable as possible at once becomes apparent.

Selection, then, is of primary importance in any scheme of teacher training; but the problem is how to make this selection most effectively and reliably. The whole field of selection has to be surveyed before a solution can be attempted.

Selection has two main aspects: (a) the Field of Selection; (b) the Actual Selection.

THE FIELD OF SELECTION

The degree of effectiveness of any selection depends on the relationship between the number of teachers needed and the number and quality of the candidates for selection. Selection will break down and become a mere formality if the demand for teachers far outstrips the supply of 'teacher potential'. The maintenance of an adequate field of supply has always been an acute problem in England, and it has become even more acute after the war. The Emergency

Training Scheme and the MacNair Committee's proposals to stimulate recruitment aim to meet immediate and long-term needs.¹

This present shortage of teachers and the need to increase the supply of suitable candidates to the training college, must not overshadow the desirability of attracting, to the two-year colleges especially, a better type of candidate. There is evidence that they have not, in the past or in the present, succeeded in attracting enough material of the right sort. This negates much of the valuable training they provide. The Memorandum of the T.C.A.C.O.P. draws attention to this:

Though T.C. are in fact drawing some of the ablest pupils from the secondary schools, yet it is nevertheless true to say that teaching in the elementary schools does not attract boys and girls with a good background and culture.²

Much of the best material never reaches the Selection Boards who have thus a limited field to choose from. In point of fact the supply of candidates has, for some time now, been so low that almost any student with the basic minimum qualification, who signifies a willingness to teach, can secure admittance into one or the other of the training colleges; this is especially true of the women because of the great shortage of infant teachers. And once they enter a training college, the vast majority qualify almost as a matter of course, and, even if they just pass, are absorbed into the profession on an equal status with the brilliant.

How can the field of recruitment be widened to include those who never reach the Selection Boards? The answer seems evident: by raising the standard of education and of

¹ *The Teaching Profession Today and Tomorrow*, pp. 7-9.

² Memorandum of the Training College Association and Council of Principals, *Training of Teachers*, p. 16.

the teaching profession as a whole; the MacNair Committee and the T.C.A. Memorandum emphasize this:

The field of recruitment will necessarily remain too limited so long as the general public fails to realize the importance, the high social value and dignity of the work, the qualities it demands and the improvement in school conditions that is being gradually brought about.¹

We shall discuss measures suggested to bring this about in the next chapter. The matter is of vital importance, for, only the raising of the status of the profession will ensure sufficient number of candidates of the right quality to make selection more than a mere formality.

THE ACTUAL SELECTION

The field having been set and a sufficiently generous supply of suitable teacher potential secured, the next difficulty is to select the best of these. The degree of reliability of such a selection will depend on many factors:

- (i) What we mean by the term "selection".
- (ii) The criteria in the light of which such selection is made.
- (iii) The actual procedure of selection : who select and the validity and reliability of the methods they employ.

We deduce some general principles from our reading on this subject; and in the light of those principles, we shall try and assess the reliability of the present mode of selection of teachers for the two-year college in England.

What is Selection?

(1) Selection should be conceived in a positive as well as in a negative sense. A reliable scheme of selection should

¹ Ibid., p. 17.

aim not only at eliminating the unfit but at discovering, nurturing and guiding the fit. To do this successfully any scheme of selection, we feel, should begin at the school level and continue throughout the career of the teacher.

Selection must begin in the schools. Obviously, unfit students who wish to take up teaching should be directed elsewhere, and *suitable candidates* encouraged to enter this noble vocation.

The responsibility for this preliminary selection rests primarily with the heads and staff of the secondary grammar schools from which the vast majority have come, and will come, for many years.

Next, the initial selection for entry into the training college should be made as reliable as possible, but it should not be, in any sense, final. In college the teacher in the making should be under observation, appraisal and guidance which should be further extended to the period of adjustment known as the "probationary year".¹

This whole period should be "selection time," and, if and when a student reveals definite unsuitability for teaching, he should be directed to a more suitable occupation.

Finally, to be fully reliable, selection and guidance must be made available throughout a teacher's career. The "door of escape" to an allied profession such as the service of Youth or Social Welfare Work should always be open to a teacher who feels "played out" with as little loss, social or monetary, as possible.

Only such a scheme of selection, we feel, can be, humanly speaking, reliable in getting and keeping the best teachers.

¹ Memorandum of T. C. A. & C. O. P., p. 17.—*The Training of Teachers.*

The Criteria of Selection

(i) The central problem of selection is to define what qualities and qualifications an intending teacher should possess, to decide the relative weightage for different branches of teaching, and to devise suitable measures to assess to what degree intending teachers possess them. There is a definite need for the personal qualities necessary in intending teachers and their relative weightage for different types of teaching to be more clearly defined, not as "specifications" into which all teachers-to-be must fit but as guides to all those engaged in selecting them.

(ii) The criteria established, the most reliable means of assessing them must be used. Evidence from America, where much work has been done in this field, seems to be in favour of objective measures,¹ but selection will, we hope, never become merely the application of a number of objective tests for "no battery of tests would make possible a completely objective evaluation of all factors important in teacher selection."²

Human nature is too complex to be reduced to a formula; what a person is, or may become, will never be clear or exactly estimable; some aspects of personality will always escape objective forms of measurements. Subjective measures, such as the personal interview, are of more help in estimating these. Hence both subjective and objective measures must be used in selecting teachers, but they must be used

¹ A. S. Barr, *Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Efficiency*. A Summary of Investigation of 150 Studies. *Journal of Experimental Education*, June 1948, p. 40: "To date the best predictions seem to be had from combinations of the so-called subjective and objective measures. While subjective measures are in general more reliable than objective measures, they appear to provide in some instances data on aspects of efficiency not yet covered by objective measures."

² *Appraising Teacher Personnel*. Report of the Committee appointed by the American Council of Education, 1947, p. 4.

with care and circumspection so as to achieve the greatest degree of reliability and accuracy.

In the light of these general principles we proceed to examine the present method of selection for the two-year college at its three stages: (a) at school; (b) at the training college; (c) in service.

(a) *Selection at School*

In England selection does take place, to a certain extent, at the school level. The head teacher of every aspiring candidate has to report to the training college authorities on his "general suitability for teaching". This report carries a certain amount of weight with selectors. That it should, seems obvious, for head teachers who have known children over a period of years ought to be able to judge whether these pupils possess the qualities necessary to make a good "elementary teacher". Yet Tudhope in an analysis of "The Attitudes of Secondary School Authorities towards the Training College Course" encountered by intending students "found their attitude unsatisfactory, their understanding of the qualities necessary for the 'elementary teacher' shallow, and hence their assessment of students' ability to teach extremely unreliable." The majority of the heads, he states, "had little understanding of the importance of the work to be done in the elementary school and of the qualities of intellect and personality required for its achievement,"¹ and their assessment of the student's suitability "gives little or no indication of the candidate's ultimate suitability for the teaching profession and is accordingly of little value to training college authorities."²

¹ *British Journal of Psychology*, May 1940, p. 9.

² *Ibid.*, p. 11.

This verdict, though somewhat harsh, has been, on the whole, confirmed by training college principals I have met. They state that while the opinions of a few heads are of inestimable value, the majority are unreliable, and most training colleges maintain a private "black list" of such heads. *

Even worse than their wrong estimates of suitability was the attitude of passive or active discouragement which Tudhope found in the grammar school heads. Instead of doing all in their power to discover and guide suitable candidates to the two-year college, they adopted, in many cases, a negative attitude. "This attitude must influence many aspiring candidates, and while it may not deter them it may set them off with the feeling that they have not done the best thing and thus deprive them of confidence in the wisdom of their choice."¹

Selection at the school level, considered positively and negatively, then, leaves much to be desired. Head teachers of grammar schools, it appears, also need to be educated to realize the importance and dignity of all ranks of their profession and the qualities needed by the aspiring "elementary teacher" in order that they may be helped to co-operate "with sincerity and understanding in aiding the colleges to make a wise selection from potential candidates." Tudhope suggests a rating scale should be devised by experts in co-operation with all those involved in teacher selection, containing a weighted list of the intellectual and personal qualities needed by the potential two-year student.

Catell² has attempted to devise such a scale whereby

¹ Tudhope, *Attitudes of the Heads of Secondary School Authorities towards the T. C. Course*, p. 12.

² *The Assessment of Teaching Ability*, J. E. P., May, 1931.

heads and others might make more accurate reports of pupils intending to be teachers. After finding by investigation, a list of 22 attributes considered most essential for the successful teacher, he abstracted from them the inherent character traits "the fairly permanent features of character not susceptible to training" and suggests they be used as criteria to estimate the prospects of teaching success of those about to enter the training college.

His weighted rating scale is as follows:—

Intelligence	10	Idealism	10
Personality and Will	10	Kindness	5
Sympathy and Tact	10	Enthusiasm	5
Open-mindedness	10	Perseverance	5
Sense of humour	10	Self-control	5

His list of qualities seems comprehensive enough and is a move in the direction of defining criteria of selection which must be agreed upon before selection at any level can be made.

The heart of the problem of selection lies in the possibility of predicting teaching success from a knowledge of existing measureable qualities of intelligence, personality, health, knowledge, skill and other traits. These predictions can only be made after these qualities have been measured and these measurements compared with subsequent teaching success based on adequate criticism.¹

There is need for much research in this matter, for unless such criteria are more or less commonly agreed upon in the light of pooled experience and research, selection will never progress beyond its present "hit or miss" stage, either at school, at college or in service.

(b) *The Selection of Teachers at the Training Colleges*

At the training college level, selection is generally a little

¹ *Appraising Teacher Personnel*, p. 35.

more made by the Principal or a delegated member of the staff. Before the final selection, the selectors try and obtain as full and as objective information about the candidates as possible—their academic qualifications, attainments, personal qualities and interests. For much of this information, they rely on the heads' reports and school records of the candidates; the rest they try and discover through an interview.

We shall examine briefly some of the data required by training college authorities and attempt to assess how far such data is reliable as an index of the student's teaching potentialities. Then we shall attempt an assessment of the interview as an effective instrument for selection.

Before being called for an interview students furnish evidence to the training college authorities on the following points:

(1) *Age*: Candidates must have attained the age of 18 years on entry.

This, in the opinion of most T.C. Staff, is too early an age of entry as students frequently do not know their own minds and lack the experience of life necessary to benefit fully from a T.C. Course. The provision for compulsory National Service will raise the male age of entry to 19½, similar provisions for women, especially if their national service took the form of work in one of the social services, would be of great help. There seems little likelihood of a later age of entry for women, however, till the present dearth of teachers, especially for infants, is met.

(2) *Evidence of a certain standard of Academic Attainments*: Candidates must possess at least a school certificate, though this may be waived in certain circumstances by

special permission from the Ministry. The school certificate, is accepted by most colleges as satisfactory evidence of a basic minimum of general education; some specify a credit in English, others a pass in certain groups of subjects; one or two insist on Matriculation or a Higher School Certificate.

In view of the need for the modern teacher to be as cultured as possible, we feel the school certificate is too low a minimum standard. At least a year or two of 6th Form work, planned on liberal lines to include practical and aesthetic subjects as well as academic, is necessary for all prospective teachers. In some cases this period of 6th Form work may lead to the H.S.C. or its equivalent, but in general we do not feel the H.S.C. meets the needs of intending teachers for the two-year college. Our reason for this are discussed later, (Ch. IV).

A high level of general intelligence and a certain minimum academic attainment are essential for intending teachers, but they should not be made the sole criteria for entry or given undue importance. Lawton in his critical "Study of the Factors Useful in choosing Candidates for the Profession" is very insistent on this point. Academic ability, he says, is related to teaching efficiency, for it ensures that a teacher has something to teach and will be able to teach it clearly; but he adds that it will not indicate the qualities which are likely to make him successful in dealing with children: other means must be adopted to indicate these.¹

In America the National Committee on Teacher Selection expressed a similar disapproval of "examination results as the sole basis of teacher selection" and emphasized that "records of experience and academic background, ratings

¹ *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, June, 1939, p. 15.

on various aspects of personality should also be used in the evaluation of a prospective teacher's qualifications. Two means are generally adopted by selectors in England to determine the background of experience and culture, and whether he possesses "the qualities likely to make him successful in dealing with children."

(3) *The Head's Report and School Record of the Candidates:* We have already discussed the head's personal estimate of the candidate's suitability and the need for it to be made more accurate. Besides this estimate, the head has also to furnish details of the candidate's non-academic record and the part played by him in extra-curriculum activities. This record, normally given on a prescribed form, gives selectors indication whether candidates possess such qualities as leadership, sociability, many-sided interest etc. desirable in intending teachers.

These records are on the whole fairly reliable but do not give a complete picture. The introduction of Cumulative Record Cards into schools will give a fuller and more objective record of the growth and development of the pupil and of his "personality profile". Not only will it contain the judgments of several teachers on the child, but also his medical history which will be a more reliable indication of his physical fitness than the single medical examination customary at present; it will also furnish details of home background giving selectors a clearer picture of the "individual against the background of his social environment".

Having collected and sifted all the evidence, the T. C. Authorities then decide which candidates they will call up for an interview.

¹ *Appraising Teacher Personnel*, p. 5.

THE INTERVIEW

This is generally conducted by the Principal or Vice-Principal and is the final and most important part of the selective process, for, through it, selectors try and discover whether the student possesses those personality and character traits which are perhaps more important than intelligence or academic attainments for the intending teacher. Most Principals as a result of long experience know what they want in candidates and are competent enough to discover its presence or absence. But they are all fallible, to a greater or less degree, and the instrument they use—the interview—is likewise fallible both because the time it occupies (10—15 minutes generally) is too short for a proper assessment and accurate prediction and because the criteria of Principals differ. Some lay stress on one set of temperamental or character traits, others on another; or, if they agree, they differ in their weightage of the different qualities. And, in any case, it is extremely difficult to gauge accurately a person's character and attitudes from a short interview when the candidate may be at his best or worst. This danger has been pointed out in the Report of the University Grants Committee for 1939-45. Speaking generally of the necessity for selection, it points out that examination results test intellectual ability but not "character temperament and the wider qualities of mind" needed in a university under-graduate — and still more in a teacher; hence some further basis of selection is needed to test these. "Intelligence tests may contribute a little"; they must however be supplemented by selection by interview and on the basis of reports from schools.

"But," the Report adds, "it (selection) is open to the suspicion that the scales are unduly weighted in favour of the socially eligible candidates of athletic prowess and of

pleasant manner of address, whereas none of these things is necessarily proportionate to real weight of metal.”¹ These remarks concerning prospective university candidates are equally applicable to the selection of intending teachers. Lawton confirms this. He points out that though the interview is the general method of estimating fitness, “yet even in the hands of the experienced it may yield unreliable results,” and need not necessarily be any more reliable “than if the students had been judged solely on the results of an examination.”²

In spite of its limitation and drawbacks however we feel—and it is generally agreed—that the interview is the best method in existence at present by which to gauge the “personal” qualities of intending teachers. We should like however, to suggest means by which the subjective element could be reduced and the interview made more objective and accurate.

One such means would be for the interview to be conducted not by the Principal alone, but by Selection Boards, with slight modifications, like those set up to select students for Emergency Training, which, by the general consensus of opinion, did a splendid job. Dent favours this idea.

The process of rigorous selection with regard to personal qualities, carried out by qualified and experienced panels of interviewers should be made a permanent part of the machinery for choosing teachers. And it should be put on to a more scientific basis.³

Such Boards or panels could include the Principal of the T.C., a member of the Governing Body, a local head or teacher of experience, an H.M.I. and an university representative

¹ Report of the University Grants Committee 1939-45, p. 35.

² Lawton, *Factors Useful in Choosing Candidates for the Profession*, p. 17.

³ Dent, *To be a Teacher*, p. 30.

of the new Institutes of Education. Bristol is to adopt some such scheme—in future every candidate will be interviewed by a panel consisting of the Principal of the T. C., a head teacher and a representative of the Institute of Education.

An alternative plan would be to arrange for prospective candidates to be given opportunities for contact with children in schools and informal activities such as youth clubs, hostels, camps etc. and perhaps to do a little actual teaching under guidance. This would be supervised by members of the college staff or H. M. I and the heads of the practising schools. Independent reports from these could then be submitted based on sounder evidence than largely subjective estimates of the heads of the schools from which the candidates come, and these would guide the Principal of the T. C. in making the final choice. Obviously unsuitable candidates could be advised to proceed no further with the idea of taking up teaching and suitable candidates could be given valuable guidance and advice before their entry into college. A practical step towards making this possible would be to hold the H.S.C. examination towards the end of the Easter term so that the summer months could be utilized in the way indicated above.

However reliable and trustworthy the initial selection, it must not mean that once selected, students will *ipso facto* be turned out as teachers after two years. Any one definitely found unsuitable at any time during the training must be asked to leave and place made for him in some other field. To lessen the hardship, the suitability and unsuitability of candidates should be definitely decided on, in most cases, by the end of the first year, at the latest. Once the third year is a reality the first year can serve as a "period of orientation," students given wide and varied opportunities

for contact with children, and, if found unsuitable, can be diverted to one of allied social service.

(c) *The Selection of Teachers in Service*

Selection to be made fully effective should not end when a candidate begins teaching. The acid test of the teaching efficiency of a candidate generally comes in the first or second year of actual teaching. These years, accordingly, must be treated as years of probation and as a testing time. Every help and encouragement should be given to the young teacher during this trying period to adjust himself satisfactorily to his chosen profession, but no final diploma should be issued till a teacher proves that he can stand up to the strain of ordinary day-to-day teaching for a reasonable length of time. We shall treat this question more fully in a later chapter, for we consider it of great importance. Here we only wish to emphasize the place of this period in a proper scheme of selection.

To sum up: Selection to be complete should begin at school, continue in the training college and be operative throughout a teacher's career, on the lines we have indicated above. We realize that the programme we have advocated is an ideal one and would be difficult to operate, but, it is not impracticable even though it may be some time before it can be implemented in England. We make no apology for being on the side of the angels. The question of selection is of such vital importance that only by aiming at the most perfect scheme can we hope for a fair measure of success.

There is no effortless or easy solution to the problem of teacher selection. Such an important responsibility is necessarily demanding of time, energy and resources regardless of the level at which it is practised. Good teachers cannot be identified blindly from records, intuitively from interviews and automatically by tests or examinations. With the future

of children depending on it, teacher selection must be undertaken seriously and with painstaking care. Every possible consideration must be taken into account."¹

We can appreciate the absolute necessity for and importance of adequate selection when we remember the unique role of the teacher in any scheme of education, so well expressed by Niblett: "Under almost any system the teacher of quality causes the barest classroom to be filled with a creative spirit and can combine with his to form a society full of living thoughts and feelings and ideas."²

¹ *Appraising Teacher Personnel*, p. 3.

² W. Niblett, *Essential Education*, p. 46.

CHAPTER III

THE STATUS OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION IN ENGLAND

Perhaps no body of men and women have as a whole deserved better of the community within the scope of their advantage and opportunities than the generations of Elementary Teachers who have staffed the schools in the 50 years.¹

THIS is high praise indeed, but when we probe deeper into the contemporary scene, we find that it is largely "wishful thinking". Much lip-service is paid to the dignity and importance of the teaching profession, but, broadly speaking, in England it has never had the status it deserves or one that is at all comparable with that of the "learned professions."² This sad fact and the poor appeal of "attractions"³ which, though considerably improved during the century, are still not good enough to attract the best material to the training colleges, make the problem of selection still more difficult. In the keen competition for the country's limited brain power between the "professions" and industry and commerce, teaching often gets on the "also rans." This may be because the salaries and prospects in the other walks of life are much more attractive, but it is also as much the effect of the poor status of the profession as its cause. Teachers need adequate

¹ Departmental Committee of the Training of Teachers for the Public Elementary Schools, p. 27.

² *Teachers and Youth Leaders*, para. 526: "England—we do not say England and Wales—has never attached enough importance to education and has, therefore, never given to the teaching profession the esteem that it needs and deserves. Only if the country experiences a change of heart will teachers receive that degree of respect that is needed to secure for our children their fair share of the services of the very best of our fellow citizens."

³ Departmental Committee on the Training of Teachers for the Public Elementary Schools, p. 30: "The only sound principle of securing an adequate supply (of potential teachers) is the principle which relies on the attraction of profession . . . partly those inherent in the teachers' work and partly those resulting from satisfactory conditions of service."

salaries. And yet many would gladly accept the present salaries if their status and other conditions of service were more on a par with those in the other "learned professions"; teaching is as much a vocation as a profession, and very few of those who enter it do so because of its monetary advantages.

Teaching, till recently, has not enjoyed this prestige, and has consequently attracted mainly people from the working and lower middle classes. Miss Margaret Phillips in a survey of secondary school students found that one of the main reasons why many did not become teachers was its low social status, and a recent survey in Bristol revealed that the majority of teachers still come from the "workers" and the "lower middle classes".

The reasons for this low status of the profession in the eyes of large sections of the general public are many and complex. It will be of value to disentangle a few and to examine suggested remedies. The status of a profession depends on many factors; for purposes of convenience we will group these under three heads: Economic, Social and Professional.

ECONOMIC FACTORS AFFECTING LOW STATUS.

Status is inevitably bound up with economic factors, and, in a competitive and industrial age, the salary, security of tenure and stability of a profession are vital inducements. Till the Burnham Committee was appointed in 1919 and drew up its two National Scales for elementary and secondary teachers, teachers' salaries were very low and varied from county to county. Since 1919 these scales have been revised and the latest revision not only creates a unified scale but makes a large salary increase to all teachers. Security and stability too have been secured by the

Pension and Superannuation Schemes. Still, as we shall show later, the economic inducements of the profession are still far below those of other professions—a fact which still results in the diversion of much of the best teacher potential into other professional avenues.

SOCIAL FACTORS

These factors in a country, that has been class-conscious for centuries, have played perhaps the largest part in determining the status of the profession. The attractions of a profession depend very largely on the esteem in which it is held publicly. This estimation has not been, and is still not, very high as Professor Kandell stated recently in a public lecture at the Institute of Education.

The recognition in theory of the importance of education for national welfare has not been accompanied in the 20th century by a commensurate esteem of the teaching profession.

This is specially true with regard to that part of the profession that is taught in the elementary schools. Dingy buildings, overcrowded classes, an atmosphere of meanness and cheapness—these were the characteristics of the majority of the elementary schools and, by inference, of the teachers who taught in them. It is no wonder, then, that the upper middle and upper classes despised teaching as a profession meant only for the lower middle class and the upper ranks of the “labouring poor” who attended these schools.

Another important reason for the low social status of the profession was its general isolation from the life of the community. Teachers were, and still are in many quarters, regarded as a “race apart”, who practise a “mystery” craft, mix and often marry among themselves, and take little share in the community life around them. Their segregation starts in the schools when they are earmarked by grants

as intending teachers. It continues in the training colleges and is completed when they enter teaching proper. There is little doubt that this segregation and isolation were largely responsible for their low esteem before the war. The "working classes" regarded them with envy and suspicion because of their "clean hands", their long holidays, and their air of intellectual and social superiority; the middle classes tolerated them, the upper classes ignored them. Unable to mix freely with the lower and upper layers of society, elementary (and even secondary) teachers were thrown together by circumstances, and this increased their isolation from the society in which they lived and lowered their prestige in the eyes of their fellows. Marjorie Reeves regards this "anomalous position of the teacher in society" as the chief cause of the low esteem of the profession and the unwillingness of people to take up teaching.

The question of the School and the Community is really at the root of our present problem to find enough teachers of the right quality. Many factors contribute to the present unwillingness to take up teaching. Some of those are already being tackled but at the root of them all lies one fundamental one. Teachers are neither fish, fowl, nor good red herring but curious beings, avoided by the rest, and unable to enjoy a normal social life.¹

This isolation based on a mistaken notion of the gulf between education and the community, must be broken down; teachers must be treated as normal, healthy human beings and encouraged to share fully in the political, social and cultured life of the community before the profession can win for itself, by its own exertions, the status and recognition to which it is entitled in view of its vital role in society.

¹ M. Reeves, *Growing up in a Modern Society*, p. 111.

A third cause of the low social status of the profession is the fact that it is in a sense a "subsidized" profession. Promising secondary pupils are helped with grants in school and college provided they agree to take up teaching. These grants not only in many cases attracted the wrong type of student into the profession but made teachers, as it were, "utility" products.

PROFESSIONAL FACTORS

The most serious causes of the low status of the profession were however those which may be broadly called "professional," for, in the last analysis, every profession gets the standing it deserves.¹

The professional standing of a profession depends on three main factors—the quality of its preparation, its professional standards in service, and its unity and "togetherness". The teaching profession has in the past been deficient in all three particulars.

Teaching has always been inferior to the other "learned professions" in the length and quality of its preparation. But what is worse is the fact that, till recently, professional training was not considered essential for all teachers. Anyone could, and did, teach. Private schools sprang up all over the country as consequences. Such schools are a valuable part of the flexibility and variety of the English school system, and some of them are among the most progressive schools in the country, well-equipped and well-staffed by competent trained teachers. But others,

¹ Report of the Working Party on the Supply of Women Teachers, p. 9: "The status of the teacher in the modern community can only reach and maintain its appropriate level by the respect for the profession which teachers themselves can foster in others."

run mainly for profit, are often poorly equipped and staffed by untrained teachers, and these schools, which from time to time figure in novels such as Waugh's *Decline and Fall*, or in the sensational press, often bring discredit to the teaching profession as a whole.

In the secondary schools training was not considered essential till recently. Elementary teachers, it was generally held, needed training, but secondary teachers needed to be educated. Because of the shortage of teachers, many "uncertificated" teachers were also allowed to teach in the elementary schools. Hence there were many untrained teachers in all types of schools, many of whom were incompetent. No profession can hope to command esteem which has within its ranks such a heterogeneous collection of skilled, partly skilled and unskilled members, all calling themselves teachers, and being considered as such by the public.

Allied to this complete lack of training for many teachers was the poor quality of the training given to teachers for the elementary schools who form the bulk of the teaching profession. Training was, until this century, mainly conceived and neither in quality nor length was comparable to that given in other professions.

The main reason for the low professional status of teaching lay, however, within the profession itself. No profession can hope to maintain its rightful place in the public esteem unless it is united, conscious of its dignity and worth, and jealous of its privileges and standards as a whole. The teaching profession has, unfortunately, been, till recent times, disunited and divided and lacking in a common platform. There has not been one teaching profession in England but three, each jealous of its own privileges, status, and salaries, and having few points of contact with the other parts. At the top are the élite in the public schools who

are born and not made, (in fact they despise training), and superior in prestige and salary to all other teachers with whom they seldom associate in professional matters or in private life. The idea of "one profession" has little attraction for them, and only a social revolution will stir them out of their conservatism and snobbishness.

The second rung of the professional ladder is occupied by the small but select band of grammar school teachers. These teachers are within the "State System" but they have always formed an upper caste within it. Sir Fred Clarke sums up their position in relation to the mass of "elementary" teachers admirably in an article in *Britain Today*:

What the Committee (MacNair) found when it began its investigations was a teaching profession in which Disraeli's two nations were sharply reflected. At the upper level were teachers in the schools then classed as Secondary. These were generally graduates who needed to hold no certificate of training and indeed many of them were quite untrained. In respect of salaries, prestige and general conditions of service they stood well above the lower and very much larger groups that taught in the schools then classed as Elementary. These were the schools that in the 19th century had the relatively humble duty of instructing the children of the labouring poor in the elements of reading, writing, and arithmetic. Few of the teachers were graduates and it mattered little for salary and status if they were. What did matter was that they should hold a teacher's Certificate. Even a graduate without this was classed as certified and paid as such.¹

This stratification was fatal for the teaching profession. How could a house divided against itself hope to achieve a high status in the public eye? The distinction became even more invidious when it began to be realized that all

¹ *Britain Today: The Training of Teachers in England*, No. 1948, p. 17.

types of teaching were equally vital and important, and that all teachers should have the same quality preparation (though different in type) and, more or less, the same salaries.

This was the state of affairs in the teaching world which the MacNair Committee had to face when it began its deliberations in 1944. The Committee realized quite clearly that no half measures would clean up the Augean stables. The standing of education and of the teaching profession as a whole had to be raised if it was to attract the quality of teacher needed to make the 1944 Act a reality.

It accordingly set about to raise the status of the profession by removing as far as possible the economic, social and professional obstacles to this improved status.

ECONOMIC REMEDIES

The first anomaly the Committee tackled was the economic one. The Burnham Scales had improved the financial position of the profession considerably, but they were not adequate, and moreover their constitution as two distinct scales for elementary and secondary teachers was unfair to the former and detrimental to the unity of the profession. Realizing that the existing scales were defective, the Committee recommended their revision in the light of "certain criteria by which the emoluments of a profession should be judged."

These criteria were:

- (1) The test of personal need—salaries should enable teachers to meet their domestic responsibilities and live a life of reasonably high cultural standard.
- (2) A market test—teachers' salaries should compare favourably with those paid to other comparable professions.

- (3) A professional test—they should not give rise to anomalies or injustices within the profession.
- (4) An educational test—they should not be such as would react unfavourably on schools or the quality of education.

The Committee found the existing scales deficient in all four respects and particularly deplored the dual scales. Hence it recommended substantial increase in teacher's salaries and that "there should be a basic salary scale for qualified teachers and additions should be made to the maximum and minimum scales to mark the possession of special qualifications or experience."¹

These recommendations were put into effect by the Soulbury Commission which drew up a single scale for all teachers.² This scale was welcomed generally by teachers especially those in the elementary schools. It was less favourably received by those teaching in the grammar schools who felt their special qualifications and the special importance of their task, which was to educate the intellectual élite of the country, merited a much higher salary. The scale has been particularly criticized as not being sufficiently attractive to the specialist teacher, especially the scientists, and one reads alarming reports of the shortage of science teachers and "the flight from the Grammar Schools". A recent report by the Association of Headmistresses in the grammar schools confirms this shortage of good grammar school teachers and says that standards in these schools are in danger of being lowered on account of it.³

The teachers in grammar schools undoubtedly have a larger "grievance" than other teachers. But recent events

¹ *Teachers and Youth Leaders.*

² *Scales of Salaries for Teachers in Primary and Secondary Schools, 1948.*

³ *Times Educational Supplement*, Jan. 29th, 1949.

show that the Revised Burnham Scale is also inadequate for the mass of teachers, for the "substantial increase" has been made insufficient by the increased cost of living. This was the point most stressed at the recent N.U.T. Conference at Margate which pressed for a revision of the 1948 scale and a higher basic wage for all teachers. The difficulty, which is being experienced in attracting women into the profession to meet the shortage of infant teachers, indicates another deficiency in the 1948 Burnham Scales; namely, the distinction it makes in the salaries of men and women teachers, who, after all, undergo the same training and hold the same types of jobs. All these "economic" defects will have to be removed before teaching becomes financially attractive and before its status can be raised.

SOCIAL REMEDIES

The MacNair Committee also set about to remedy the existing social inequalities and obstacles to improved status. It dropped, once and for all, the stigma attaching to the word "elementary" by leaving it out of the Report, and recommended that, in future, the standard of the teachers and the conditions of service in the old elementary schools, should be on a par with those in the secondary schools. Smaller classes, better equipment, when possible, new and brighter buildings would, they hoped, soon transform the "elementary" schools and give them and those who taught in them a prestige equal to that of the secondary schools.

The Committee set itself to break down the isolation of teachers from the life of the community, an isolation that was considerably lessened during the war years. Its recommendation that in future teachers should be allowed to take part in local and national life will, provided it is not abused, do much to bring teachers into fuller and closer contacts with

their fellows. The new conception of education as a social service should also, when it becomes a reality, force teachers to take a much more active part in the life of the society around them which is bound to raise their prestige and status in the eyes of the general public. Positive measures should also be taken and widespread propaganda used to make this public realize the true nature of education and of the teacher's task. Where it is commonly supposed that anyone can teach, anyone is likely to. The public can play an important part in determining what type of teachers educate their children. But they must have clear ideas as to what the teacher must be, and must do. The teacher is no more a pedagogue; he is a "life-master" not a schoolmaster, and the public should be made aware of this so that they can, as they must, esteem him for it. Mary Birkings Haw, in her book *The Successful Teacher*, records that as a result of an investigation she found that a large part of the community in England still disliked and disparaged the teacher. This has grown less during the war, but, while the hostility has lessened, there is still no true understanding of the real nature and importance of the teacher's task and the necessity for getting only the best. Hence the need for educating the public.

PROFESSIONAL REMEDIES

The MacNair Committee realized, only too clearly that the seed of the low professional status of teachers lay within the profession itself — in the idea that "anyone can teach," in the different standards and qualifications demanded of elementary and secondary teachers, the inferior quality of the former, and finally in the disunity within the profession. Hence its most striking and far-seeing recommendations were designed to cure these defects.

The Committee satisfied a long felt need in stating that

in future there would only be one type of teacher, "the qualified," and that he would have to be both trained and educated. Teachers in all types of schools, primary or secondary, would in the future have to undergo a course of professional training for "recognition" by the Ministry. This principle has been accepted by all teachers' associations and by the Ministry. From 1949 no untrained teacher will be appointed to any State or Voluntary School within the State system and "untrained teachers" in service are being granted special facilities to undergo shortened courses of training. Private and public schools are still exempt from this rule but the pressure of public opinion will, it is hoped, soon force them to appoint trained teachers. This insistence that professional training is essential for all teachers for the first time makes teaching a recognizable "profession" like Medicine or Law. It is to be hoped that, in time, teachers will also have a register, and that no "unregistered" or unauthorized person will be allowed to teach in any school. This would at one stroke raise the status of the profession considerably.

The Committee also set about to improve the length and quality of the preparation of all teachers, but especially those in the elementary schools, and so make them more equivalent to those in other professions. The two-year course of training was, when circumstances permitted, to be increased to three years, and in future the stress was to be on the "education" of the teacher and not his "training". This is the underlying idea of the Report and when it is made a reality it will produce a more cultured type of teacher who is bound to raise the status of the profession as a whole.

Disunity within the profession was, however, the main evil to be eradicated and the Committee made its most radical suggestions with a view to promoting the ideal of

"one profession," raising the status of the profession as a whole in the public eye. Accordingly they treated teaching as a national and unified service organized on a regional basis, and recommended that in future the training of all teachers should be the responsibility of the universities. This revolutionary proposal to associate the training of all teachers with the university will do much to break down barriers between the "two-year" and "post-graduate" students, to create an intensified sense of unity and common interest in the profession, to improve the quality of its preparations, and to raise its standing as a whole.

The fact that the university will be the responsible body for the training and certification of teachers will also preserve the autonomy and freedom of the profession from being encroached upon by the state, as it was in Germany and Italy, and as it is in Russia and her satellites. Only the university has the prestige and standing necessary to stand up fearlessly for the teacher's rights and freedom—essential factors in the maintenance of the dignity and status of the profession.

The creation of the University Schools of Education, the single Burnham scale and other similar measures, have created the machinery for a unified profession which should be ready, willing and able to take its place proudly beside the other learned professions on terms of complete equality. But, ultimately, the achievement of unity, the maintenance and improvement of standards, and the consequent improvement in status and prestige in the teaching profession, rest with the teachers themselves. Their salvation lies in their own hands and depends on what they can do, by professional organization and by their own sustained efforts, to reach and maintain high standards and to achieve unity.

Ever since the Act of 1870, teachers have become increas-

ingly aware of this fact and have banded themselves together to protect their rights, raise their status and improve the quality of education in England. There are several teachers' organizations representing the various interests, and all have done valuable service to the cause of teachers and of education.

The largest and most powerful of these organizations is the National Union of Teachers, which has, since its inception, stood for the unity of the profession and for basic parity of treatment for all ranks of teachers. This large and influential body has done more than any single organization to raise the standing of education and the status of the teacher's profession as a whole. Next in importance is the Council of the Joint Four, representing the interests of the old secondary schools, which has also contributed to the promotion of education and the status of the profession. Other associations of specialist teachers in the various subject fields have advanced the study of individual subjects, of new methods of teaching. Teachers in England enjoy a large measure of freedom and the researches of these bodies have enabled them to use this freedom wisely and well and thus raised the level of their competence. Finally, we have the A.T. C.D.E, a comparatively young organization, which is playing an active and dynamic part in the maintenance and raising of the quality of the preparation and the professional standards of all types of teachers. All these organizations, by their insistence on the necessity of training for all teachers, by upholding the rights and dignity of the profession, by pressing for higher standards, have done much to bring about a sense of professional unity and to secure recognition for teaching as a learned profession.

Unfortunately, however, the movement towards a unified profession has yet one major obstacle to surmount—the

major division which still exists in the ranks of the teachers between the N.U.T. and the Joint Four. The N.U.T. represents all types of teachers, but is largely identified with the old elementary teachers who form the majority of its members. The Joint Four represents the interests of teachers in the secondary grammar schools, who are loath to abandon their former position of superiority and merge themselves with the common herd. The 1944 Act and the MacNair Committee presuppose a unified profession — this unity has yet to be achieved within the ranks of the teachers themselves. Much good will exist and the N.U.T. is making every effort to make possible a new organization that will unite all teachers while preserving their separate interests and individuality; yet the fissure between the two rival organizations seems as deep as ever.

This fissure is a serious obstacle not only to professional unity but to the status of the profession as a whole. It is to be hoped that it will be soon realized so that the MacNair Committee's ideal of "one profession" will be achieved. Only then will teachers be able to face the world with a united front and win for themselves that prestige and status in the public eye to which their talents and service to the Community entitle them.

CHAPTER IV

THE GENERAL EDUCATION OF THE TEACHER

The function of the Training College is two-fold—to continue, and supplement the future teacher's general education, and to train him or her to become an effective teacher.¹

THIS STATEMENT spotlights the dual functions the two-year training colleges have set themselves since their inception. The pendulum of emphasis has swung from one to the other at various times, but both have remained concurrent and integral parts of all training college courses to this day. In this section we shall examine the general education of the teacher: in later sections his professional preparation. This division is, as emphasized later (see Chap. VI), made merely as a measure of convenience.

HISTORICAL SURVEY

The most striking feature that emerges from an historical survey of this aspect of a teacher's preparation is its increasing importance, qualitatively and quantitatively, both at the pre-college stage and in the training college itself. Lancaster's pupils had a very limited school education, and, to this minimum, very little more was added at the training centre where the main emphasis was on the famous "method". For entry to Battersea, under Kay-Shuttleworth, however, entrants were expected to have a higher standard of school education, and given a fuller course of academic instruction at the training college itself.

In the twentieth century, the movement for better educated teachers has concentrated on giving students the full benefits of a complete secondary education before entry

¹ Report of the Departmental Committee on the Training of Teachers for the Public Elementary Schools, p. 52.

into the training college, including, if possible, a year or two of 6th Form work.¹

Since 1925, (the age of entry has been raised to 18), most students do complete a year or 16 months of 6th Form work and many sit for the H.S.C; yet training colleges still devote approximately half their time and energy to completing the "general education" of teachers. Why is this?

We feel that it is due partly to deficiencies in the general education of intending teachers at school, and partly to a new conception of the nature, purpose and content of the general education of the teacher. This is now conceived not only as designed to give teachers a wide background of general knowledge and culture but as an education which develops all aspects of their personality, physical, emotional, intellectual, moral and spiritual. How far does the general education given intending teachers today approximate to this ideal? The answer can only be given by analysing their general education at school and at college.

THE GENERAL EDUCATION OF THE TEACHERS AT SCHOOL

Intending teachers attend the same schools as pupils destined for other vocations. All of them remain at the elementary schools till 11 and then, by passing the "special place" examination they are transferred to the secondary grammar schools. Here they continue their general education till the first examination standard. A few leave to work under supervision as student teachers, but the majority stay on for at least an additional year of 6th Form work during which they generally specialize in a limited number of sub-

¹ Ibid. p. 89: "The general education of teachers, except those who have ability to profit from a full degree course, should be completed in the Secondary School by carrying it to the standard of a second examination, implying nearly two years' work beyond a first examination and taken therefore at 18 or 19."

jects. Some take the Higher School Certificate Examination before entering the training college, others enter without it.

This would seem to be an adequate pre-college general education — in fact it is not. Too much emphasis is placed, in most secondary schools, on academic subjects and too little attention is given to the practical and aesthetic elements in education. This is especially noticeable in the School Certificate in the final year at school. Even more to be deplored is the narrow and premature specialization that is demanded, even within the academic field, from the H.S.C. student who concentrates on a narrow "Science" or "Arts" group of subjects to the exclusion of almost all else. If these subjects were studied in all their interrelations, and in such a way as to enable the student to think and study on his own, this specialization would not perhaps be so harmful. But, in practice, H.S.C. studies are neither wide nor deep enough to achieve these ends. They impose a severe intellectual and emotional strain on the students who enter college, "played out, cramped, tense, unresilient", instead of as well-rounded personalities with the germs of a many-sided culture. It is because of this that the N.U.T. Report criticized the Higher School Certificate Examination. "The high standard of attainment which is expected in the two, three or four main subjects of the examination denies alike the possibility of following other interests effectively and the opportunity of finding refreshment for the mind which is often jaded at the end of the School Certificate Course."¹

The Higher School Certificate, then, is, except for the few, not a very suitable preparation for entry into a training college. Yet the last year or two in the 6th Form are vital for the flowering and maturing of the student's per-

¹ The Training of Teachers and Grants to Intending Teachers. Report of a Committee of Investigation appointed by the Executive of the N.U.T. 1939.

sonality. All that is needed is that they should be planned better, so that the student may derive the maximum benefit from them. The memorandum of the A.T.C.D.E. suggests that this can be best accomplished by a "wise balance of subjects" studied so as to develop the power of reflective thought and, implying that present practice is not quite what it should be, adds "speaking generally, intending teachers would benefit by the placing of more emphasis on such subjects as music, art, crafts, physical education, speech training, voice production and English literature of a non-examinable type. They would also derive profit from a fuller training in the use of leisure with a view to avoiding a cleavage such as is frequently found between school and life."¹

It would also be extremely valuable if during this last year or two intending teachers could be given contacts with children in Youth Clubs, Nurseries etc. and perhaps allowed to try their hand at actual teaching, under supervision of course.

Such a course in school would give the intending teacher the foundation on which the training college could build, and would enable him to make the most of the training college course from the beginning instead of wasting, as frequently happens, the first three or six months in getting adjusted to his new environment. It would also lessen the burden of "general education" which at present presses heavily on the training colleges.

THE GENERAL EDUCATION OF THE TEACHER AT COLLEGE

The general framework of this side of the teacher's preparation was laid down very early. It consisted of two parts

¹ T.C.A. & C.O.P., Memorandum: *The Training of Teachers*, p. 14.

—an academic group of subjects and a practical and aesthetic group. When the Joint Boards took over from the Board of Education, they kept this framework more or less intact. Till recently, therefore, all intending teachers had to choose a certain number of subjects, as a part of their general education, some to be studied at an “ordinary” level, one or two at an “advanced” level.

It is interesting to compare the requirements and courses provided before the Joint Board with those provided by a modern Joint Board or Delegacy. Such a comparison provides an admirable index of the direction in which such courses are moving.

Lance Jones in *The Training of Teachers* gives the following lists of “ordinary” and “advanced” subjects prescribed by the Board of Education Regulations.

GROUP A

Ordinary: — English, History, Geography, Mathematics, Elementary Science, Welsh.

Advanced: — English, History, Geography, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry and Botany, Welsh, French.

GROUP B

Ordinary: — Singing and Theory of Music, Drawing, Needlework.

Advanced: — Music, Drawing, Housework, Special Handwork, Gardening.

Teachers of older children were expected to take four subjects, at least two being from Section A and one from Section B. One of these could be carried to an advanced standard.

Elementary teachers had to study five subjects, one of which had to be English.

We see, reflected quite clearly in these provisions, the idea that the training college curriculum in general subjects

must be the elementary school curriculum writ large—the aim being to equip teachers with all the facts they would need in the classroom and a few more. The needs of the teacher as a person were catered for by the advanced subjects, but, due to the pressure of the ordinary courses, not enough time could be devoted to these. Hence this syllabus tended to suit mediocre minds and to ignore the education of the student himself as a person. Standards too were low, hence the students' mind were not sufficiently extended.

The Joint Boards preserved this division into academic and practical groups, but reduced the number of ordinary courses and placed much more emphasis on the advanced courses. New subjects were added both to the ordinary and to the advanced groups—many of them of a hybrid of integrated character. Much greater freedom was given to lecturers in the individual colleges to interpret the advanced courses and in the hands of specialists these often became “the first formative influence in the training colleges.”

The London Training Delegacy provides an admirable example of “General Subjects provision and requirement under a progressive regional organization.

GROUP A

English Language and Literature (O & A), History (O & A), Geography (O & A), Mathematics (O & A), Science (O & A), Divinity (O & A), A Foreign Language (A), Economics (O & A), Environmental Study (O).

GROUP B

Music (O & A), The Art of Movement and Spoken Language (O), Crafts (O & A), Craft & Design (O), Art and Handwork (O & A), Arts & Crafts (O & A), Housework (A), Gardening (O & A), Handwork (A).

Candidates must take three subjects, one from Section A, one from Section B and the third from either — one of these must be carried to an advanced standard. If no advanced subject is taken, a student must take a 4th ordinary subject (a 5th may be taken, in some cases, as a supplementary).

This course presents interesting points of comparison with the course outlined by Lance Jones:

Certain superficial differences are obvious:

1. The range of subjects in each group is widened. This is a very noticeable feature in most joint Board Regulations. New subjects are being continually added to the ordinary and advanced lists, many of which the student may never have to teach in the school. Such subjects are studied from the point of view of his own education as a person, for the more cultured the person, the better the teacher.

2. The rigid subject division noticeable in the first group has been broken through. Subjects like "environmental study," for instance, involve skills and knowledge acquired in the Group B subjects. Within the group too there is much greater integration in subjects like Music and Movement, Craft and Design.

3. The number of ordinary subjects has been reduced and standards have been raised so that they stretch the students' mind and quicken, instead of deadening, his desire to learn.

But an even more interesting feature is the new orientation and scope of these ordinary subjects. Under the Board of Education Regulations, the ordinary subjects played an important part in filling up gaps in the teacher's general knowledge. But now with the increasing quality and length of the general education given teachers at school, the students come to the T.C. with a reasonable background of general knowledge. Hence, ordinary courses are not designed merely

to provide more detailed syllabuses than those completed at the secondary schools. Their emphasis is not on knowledge for its academic value only, but on the use which the students can make of such knowledge in schools. In short, they are tending more and more to be "professionalized". This must not be interpreted to mean that students study only such parts of their subjects as they will need in the schools. Such an approach would be narrower than was the case under the old regulations. Subjects are studied for their cultural value, but part of the course is orientated towards the needs of the particular age range they intend to teach.

An example of such a "professionalized" course is the English course at Whitelands College. It is divided into two parts:

PART I consists of a study of selected prose, poetry and drama for the student's own education.

PART II a study of the material for teaching, including stories, poems, plays, children's classics and methods of dramatization.

Lecturers in handling such courses deal with subject matter and methods of teaching such subject matter at the same time, so that students can learn how to use such material in class in the most effective way. From the lectures I have attended in such subjects, it is apparent that this co-ordination of subject matter and method in the light of the child's needs is to be preferred to straightforward lectures on "Teaching Methods" in the various subjects. Great emphasis is also placed on learning through activity. Students in English, for instance, not only study but write and act plays and have training in oral and choral speech; and, realizing the value of such experiences for their own personal

development, are much more ready and confident to use them in the schools.

A second striking feature of the general education of the teachers at the training college to day is the increasing stress being placed on practical and aesthetic subjects and experiences. Students are, according to regulations, only compelled to take one of these courses, but many colleges provide short courses in allied subjects which are sometimes optional, and sometimes compulsory. This emphasis is highly desirable. It is time that such experiences and activities ceased to be regarded as mere "decorative additions" in the schools, and become an integral and essential part of every child's education, for they are as necessary to his mental and emotional health as food and exercise are to his physical growth. "Education through experience" will never become a reality till students at the training colleges themselves experience the joy and satisfaction that come through aesthetic experiences, and the practical and manipulative arts. Every college should provide a wide range of such courses; but some of the smaller colleges are, I understand, hampered in this respect. The MacNair Committee's recommendations for larger colleges and the exchange of staff between colleges should help to remedy this defect. Under the Area Training Organization there can also be an exchange of students, and specialist colleges in physical training, domestic science etc. can help to provide short and advanced courses for members of other colleges.

There is, in addition to these tendencies, a third feature emerging in the T.C. curriculum of general education. This is the stress being placed on the advanced subjects or the special interest. This is optional under the London Training Delegacy but in most of the newer regulations all students are compelled to choose one or two special interests, and

carry them as far as possible. "The course of every student should be planned so that he has the experience of doing at least one thing as well as he can do it, and being fully extended thereby." This is the principle inspiring this new emphasis on the special interest. These special interests differ from the "advanced" courses, as far as I gather, in that more freedom is given to students and lecturers in the choice of the scope and direction of such interests; their range is much wider than the advanced subject and they are studied for the student's own personal education primarily, and only secondarily from the point of view of possible specialist teaching in the schools.

This syllabus is on the whole satisfactory. Yet it is not free from defects which will have to be eliminated, and the course will have to be re-cast to some extent, if it is to develop all the potentialities of teachers-to-be.

DEFICIENCIES IN THE GENERAL EDUCATION OF TEACHERS AT COLLEGE

While the scope of the Advanced Courses is suitable—their interpretation and value depend on the quality of the students who take them, and work on their own, under guidance; and where the staffing is adequate and of university standard, these courses are among the best things the training colleges have to offer. But lecturers, at the women's colleges especially complain that due to the shortness of time, the pressure of work, and the immaturity of their students, they cannot extract full value from these courses. They state that it frequently takes them a whole year to train students accustomed to being "spoonfed" to work on their own, and just when they are succeeding the students depart, leaving their work half-done.

Sometimes, though very seldom, the fault is with the staff who have not themselves the culture and background necessary to make these courses alive, and fully educative.

Better school training in initiative and self-reliance, a three-year course, and an insistence that all training college staff should possess high Honours degrees, would remedy defects.

More adequate staffing is also needed so that lecturers will have more time to devote to "tutoring" their "advanced" students.¹

1. The students are still often expected to take too many ordinary subjects — the number expected by various Boards, varying from two to four, depending on whether the student takes two, or only one advanced subject. The ordinary subjects serve little useful purpose, and they are the "hangover" of the idea that a teacher must be given the facts in all the subjects he will be called upon to teach in school. This burden of ordinary subjects frequently produces an overcrowded curriculum, and hinders students from deriving full benefit from their advanced subjects, while the variety of subjects leads to a frittering away of energies, and to dilettantism. The shortness of the period of study also makes the students' attempts to cover the course a fruitless struggle against time. Superficiality is often the result, and their desire to learn more of knowledge and of children is deadened, instead of quickened. What is really needed is not to give the teacher enough facts in these subjects, but to develop his mind sufficiently so that he can acquire such facts for himself when he needs them to give him an enquiring mind, not an over-stacked one; and wide interests which will later develop into specific skills and knowledge. In short, what the teacher needs is not factual knowledge but understanding, in the Platonic sense of the distinction between the two.

Where is the wisdom we have lost in knowledge?

Where is the knowledge we have lost in information?

The Cycles of Heaven in twenty Centuries

Bring us further from God, and nearer to the dust.

T. S. Eliot.

¹ *Teachers and Youth Leaders*, p. 64.

2. A third and more subtle defect is what a lecturer referred to in my presence, as the "fictitious" unity that is supposed to exist between the two-year colleges. In theory all training college students from a given area take the same number of subjects, sit for the same examination, and are awarded the same certificate. In practice, as is to be expected, there is a fairly wide difference between one certificated teacher and another in their level of education. Men students, because the men's colleges are fewer and competition for entry keener, are generally older and more mature than women students. Strawberry Hill and Burrough Road Training Colleges, for instance, seldom admit men under 19—and the introduction of National Service will make entry at 19½ or 20 the normal procedure. In contrast, the women enter at the beginning of their eighteenth year; they are less developed and mature, yet the same courses are prescribed for men and women students in the ordinary and advanced subjects.

Thus, broadly speaking, the women tend to act as a drag on the men; for instance, in one men's college, a lecturer told me his students were ready to take the examination in most ordinary subjects after a year, yet they had to mark time because of the lower standard of the women in the neighbouring colleges.

Even within a training college in spite of careful screening, the range of ability varies from those of degree standard to those who have just managed to pass their school certificate. Lecturers find it difficult to cater for this wide diversity of talents and generally end by being "too fast for the slow and too slow for the fast."

How can this difficulty of providing an education suited to the varying talents and abilities of the students be solved? Only by treating each training college student as an

individual, not a unit in a homogeneous group, and by devising an education that is as far as practicable suited to his personal needs and abilities. Uniformity of standard or rigid prescriptions that all students must take such and such subject at such and such level will never enable every individual student to gain the maximum benefit from the training college curriculum. This is not an easy matter to arrange in practice but it has been done, with a large measure of success, in the emergency colleges and the lessons learnt there can be applied to the two-year colleges.

3. The standards of certification are too low, especially in the "ordinary subjects"—not much above the School Certificate level—hence, much of this work is a repetition of what was done in school. To pitch one's standards low is to get poor results and Lance Jones is justified in his opinion that "the failure of the system to call forth the best efforts of these who come under it is its most serious condemnation." And adds "no system can be regarded as satisfactory which does not maintain standards sufficiently high to elicit the best efforts of those who are preparing to enter the profession and to command the respect and confidence of the community."¹

In the attempt to keep the "fictitious unity" between the two-year colleges academic standards have been relaxed, especially in the ordinary subjects. Hence, the students' grasp of these is shallow, and, what is more, they often leave the training college with the idea that having "done" History, Geography, Mathematics and English at college, they know all that they need to know of these subjects in order to teach them.

This defect can be remedied by either dropping the

¹ Lance Jones, *The Training of Teachers*, p. 102.

ordinary subjects or "professionalizing" them; or by reducing their number and upgrading their standards.

4. A last defect is that the subject division still tends to be too rigid. Children, and adults, often learn in a way that cuts right across subject divisions. They do not divide their "experience" into subject divisions but learn from them as a whole, for experience in one field is associated with, and influenced by, experience in another field.

Courses of study are essential expedients of education, but they should be recognized as nothing but an arbitrary, though useful, contrivance. Unless the vital interconnection of all phases of experiences are kept in mind the convenient devices of study may become barriers which prevent our realizing the unity of knowledge and experience.¹

Hence, in modern educational practice we have the insistence on "Integration," the Project Method etc. These progressive means of teaching and learning have not yet found sufficient place in the general education of the teacher in most training colleges. At a few something is being done in the way of new subjects like Social Studies and new methods — these need to be extended considerably.

THE GENERAL EDUCATION OF THE TEACHER TODAY

A Personal View

Having examined the general education of the teacher at school, and at college, and pointed out, what appears to be, some weaknesses, we shall now attempt to give a rough idea of what we consider to be an appropriate course of general education for a teacher, in the light of modern requirements. In doing so we use as our inspiration the words of the MacNair Committee:

¹ *Report of the University Education Commission, 1943-9, p. 117.*

The best preparation a young person of 18 or upwards can have for his future work is a course of study and activity which will result in his achieving a balanced development of mind and body.¹

This preparation, we insist, must begin in the schools, for, unless they lay the foundations well, the training colleges will be building on sand, and their task will be a hopeless one.

In our analysis of the "General Education of the Teacher at School" we have pointed out certain defects that need to be remedied if the pre-college education of teachers is to be satisfactory.

Within the training colleges we feel the most pressing need, in the *sine qua non* of any reform, is for an extension of the present overcrowded two-year course to a minimum of three years without any increase but some re-shaping of the present curriculum so that the student is able to "mature by living, not survive by hurrying" as the present multiplicity of subjects and shortness of time compel him to do. His general education must aim at making him a well-educated person not a well-informed one, "at mental formation not departmentalized information"; it must be deep rather than diffuse, and must give him wisdom, "the art of the utilization of knowledge", not "inert knowledge"; and cultivate the inquiring not the stuffed mind, for knowledge without the power of growth is not only useless but dangerous.

Learning is an activity of thought. It is not a stuffing of the mind with facts. We must be able to use what we learn, test it, throw it into fresh combinations. It must become vibrant with power, radiant with light.²

¹ *Teachers and Youth Leaders*, p. 64.

² *Report of the University Education Commission, 1948-9*, p. 4.

A teacher who, after leaving the training college, cannot, or does not wish, to go on learning will soon become a barrier to the progress of education and a menace to the intellectual development of generations of children. For this type of general education a student must, at college, be given a large measure of freedom of personal choice and responsibility, the opportunity to "follow his bent" as far as he can, and that atmosphere of leisure and independent study so essential for personal growth. And the present syllabus of general education needs to be made less wide and shallow, more flexible to meet the needs of individual students and it must be conceived "in terms of activity and experience" as well as "of facts to be learnt and knowledge to be acquired."

As guiding lines for such a course, we would suggest the following elements, others being added to suit the special needs of teachers of a particular age range or type of school.

1. A compulsory study of the English language, oral and written. Every teacher is a teacher of English and the ability to use the mother tongue in speech and writing, not only as a tool but as a source of enjoyment, is an indispensable qualification for every teacher.

2. The study of *one* (it may be increased to two when the third year becomes a reality) subject carried as far as a student can take it, primarily for his own development, and then only with a view to teaching it in school. This subject should be studied intensively and extensively, and in relation to allied subjects, for as Dr. Brew expresses it so perfectly: "One of the main reasons why education is such an exciting adventure is that, whatever one's starting point, one can progress almost infinitely in all directions."¹

Subjects studied in this way will provide a natural

¹ Dr. Macalister Brew, *Informal Education*, p. 242.

integration with other subjects in the mind of the student, an integration that will be much more real and vital than any imposed from the outside. Private study and individual work should be the keynote of the method of studying this subject.

This study of one or two advanced subjects should be at the heart of the general education of all intending teachers, irrespective of the age-group they intend to teach or whether they are to be specialists or "general practitioners" — it will kill once and for all the fallacy that the nursery or infant teacher does not need "culture" or that the general practitioner must be a "Jack of all trades and master of none." We firmly agree with Dent when he states bluntly: "The folly of differential levels of education for teachers must stop; all teachers must be well educated up to a high standard. But they must be *variously* educated according to their aptitudes and tastes."¹

3. Some acquaintance with and practical experience of projects, activities and environmental studies which demand first-hand exploration of the physical, social and natural milieu, and cut across rigid subject divisions. Such projects should be pursued both at the student's own level, and at the children's he is going to teach, and may be carried out by individuals or in groups. These experiences will give students an insight into the way children often learn (and adults also) and teach them how to integrate subject matter and activities from various fields of learning. And, what is most important perhaps, they will convince them of the value and importance of this new approach to the curriculum and give them the necessary self-confidence to carry it into the schools.

¹ Dent, *To be a Teacher*, p. 79.

Students usually hear much of the theoretical advantages of these "new methods", but, for want of personal experience, are often unconvinced of their utility, or unable to use them effectively.

4. Short basic courses in Handicrafts and Art or Music. Such courses should aim to cultivate a minimum of practical skill and efficiency in their exercise, to create taste and foster students' awareness and appreciation of the importance of the practical and aesthetic elements in education for their own development and that of their pupils.

5. If possible, and time permits, no student should leave the training college without being introduced to "the three inevitable areas of man's life and knowledge . . . the physical world, man's corporate life and his inner visions and standards."¹ Students, in whose pre-college and college courses arts subjects predominate, should make the acquaintance of the Natural Sciences; science students of the Humanities. The Social Sciences which deal with "man's corporate life" should be common to both groups and integrated, if possible, with child study and made alive by welfare work. Lest the course outlined above be thought too ambitious, we are glad to record that we found a somewhat similar one in existence, and proving very successful at Portsmouth Training College. The basis pattern of their course is the same for infant, junior and senior teachers, with variations to suit their individual needs. All students, as a part of their "general education", take: (i) a basic course in English, spoken and written, and elementary mathematics ;(ii) two subjects chosen from a comprehensive list to further the general education and personal development of the students and carried as far as they are capable of

¹ Harvard Report, *General Education in a Free Society*, p. 98.

carrying them; (iii) a basic course in Art and Craft or Music — in the case of infant and junior teachers Music is compulsory. Courses are suited to age groups to be taught; (iv) integrated work at the students' own level, including an environmental study and the study of some topic of the students' own choice. Students not only study these "topics" at their own level, but, on one afternoon a week for one term, carry them into the schools; (v) all students do a course in Divinity, and infant teachers one in Biology, which it was hoped would one day be compulsory for junior and senior teachers also.

These courses are done in addition to the more professional side of the curriculum. The above scheme, which is working extremely well, is defective in only one respect — students are expected to take two advanced subjects and it is not easy in the short space of two years to do both satisfactorily.

Of special interest is the "integrated work" carried on by the students. The following account will help to make clear its nature. Students were studying Pepys' *Diary* in their English course — finding that they were interested in the period, lecturers and students decided to make a group study of England during 1660-1760. The study was begun by background lectures by the appropriate lecturers on the art, music, architecture and literature of the period. Students were encouraged to read widely, and then, in consultation with their tutors, chose specific topics in which they were interested and on which they proposed to work out projects. These topics covered a wide range and included country dancing in the 18th century, food, English village life, education, flowers, a study of Wren's churches, and a more general one in domestic architecture in the period. Students worked at these in their free time and in vacations collecting material,

making illustrations and drawings, costumes and models, meeting one afternoon a week to report on their work and discuss their findings with their tutors. When all their studies were complete and after students had experienced the joy and profit to be derived from such work to the schools, many of them did in fact make use of this new approach during their teaching practice. The whole study, which occupied one afternoon a week for a term and a half, was rounded off by an exhibition of all the students' individual work and by displays of puppetry, country dancing etc. to illustrate various aspects of life in Pepys' day which could not be included in the students' excellent records of their researches. In the second year these students, under a team of lecturers in biology, history, geography and sociology, carried out an environmental study of "old" Portsmouth on similar lines. The team of lecturers who handled these forms of integrated work, and the students who participated in them, were enthusiastic about their value, but both admitted they involved a heavy burden of extra work for staff and students, and that more time was needed to carry them out satisfactorily. We found similar experiments being carried out at many of the training colleges we visited, and lecturers and students everywhere are in complete agreement as to their value and importance.

The above programme of general education, we feel, adapted to the need of different students, would enable training colleges to turn out truly educated and cultured students. Such students would not, perhaps, "know all that a teacher ought to know," but would possess the qualities, attitudes and enthusiasm which an educated person ought to possess, and which would soon enable them to make up for any deficiencies in their actual store of knowledge.

A small body of opinion in England holds that the "general education" of all teachers should be undertaken at the university, as it is in the cases of men teachers in Scotland. That many teachers will benefit more from a university course of studies is unquestionable, and facilities must be given them for pursuing it, as they are at present. But the majority of those who enter the two-year colleges, though of good ability, are not suited to the intellectual discipline of degree courses. Such courses also tend to be too academic and do not allow for much flexibility of treatment, or adaptability to the needs of individual students.

What are needed are non-graduating courses of university standard which are as exacting in their demands on the students, but which allow more freedom for the lecturer and the students, and which place stress not only on the intellectual, but also on the practical and aesthetic elements in subjects.

Finally, we would like to re-emphasize the vital importance of the general education of the teacher in his total schemes of preparation. On the quality and vitality, the liberality and depth of his education, as much as on his professional training, depends the type of human being and teacher that the training colleges produce for:

Even the success of the most competent specialist depends upon general capacities. The man of deep understanding, of rich culture and flexible mind will not long be at a disadvantage in competition with those who have a vast amount of technical information. The dramatically swift success of the narrowly trained practitioner is ultimately overshadowed by the achievements of a person with a philosophical grounding.¹

¹ Editorial in *Journal of General Education*, October 1949.

CHAPTER V

THE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF TEACHERS: I

THE DEPARTMENTAL Committee on the Training of Elementary Teachers in England in 1925, while acknowledging the dual function of the training colleges, felt that they should devote themselves primarily to giving "a two-year course of professional training." To achieve this end it recommended that "the two-year courses should be more professional in character and aim, and that the academic work they include should be undertaken primarily as a means to professional skill, and less for learning and intellectual development in itself; that the subjects should be looked upon as material for studying teaching methods and for acquiring ability to teach them effectively."¹

This rather narrow interpretation of professional training was fortunately never enforced, for the Joint Boards, set up in 1929, which took over the training of teachers from the Board of Education, realized its limitations. Largely due to university influence, these Joint Boards tended to place more emphasis on the general education of the teacher, though the continued stress of the Board of Education on practical teaching efficiency, and training college practice itself, tended to restore the balance, and perhaps, tilt it in favour of professional training. The MacNair Report marks a radical departure from this traditional dichotomous outlook in its attempt to bring together these twin, and often conflicting, aspects in the wider synthesis of the "education of the teacher as a person," and in its insistence that the whole is more than the sum total of the parts.

¹ Departmental Committee on the Training of Teachers in the Public Elementary Schools, p. 93.

IS TRAINING NECESSARY?

This insistence that a teacher needs to be in the fullest sense an educated person is often used as an argument in their favour by the few diehards who are still against training of any kind—"the teacher is born not made". There is some truth in their thesis. A certain physical and temperamental make-up is essential for a good teacher; a man must have certain natural gifts and qualities or no amount of training will make him a teacher.

But Providence has arranged that these indispensable traits are few, and that the majority have them in some measure; other necessary qualities can be acquired, but only through a course of training designed specifically to develop them.

Professor Cavanagh sums up the controversy in a few words written in 1932. Speaking of the necessity of training he says:

Nature sets the limits; as in every other direction nurture never outweighs nature. But within this limit there is room for enormous improvements. Every beginner, even the most gifted, makes all sorts of mistakes which can be immediately pointed out and immediately corrected by a supervisor. Yet if a man is not trained he may never have the chance of friendly criticism.¹

There is no real conflict between general education and professional training, between the teacher who is born and the teacher who is made, between knowing one's subject and teaching that subject to children. They complement and complete one another and achieve a wider synthesis in "the personal education of the teacher". (See Chapter VII). He must beware of over emphasising any one aspect of this "education". The rule of thumb *ignoramus*, and the

¹ "The Training of Teachers," *Journal of Education*, 1932, p. 49.

cultivated bungler must both be kept out of the profession. No one can study, master and apply methods of teaching a subject of which he is ignorant, and without a knowledge of how children grow, develop and learn and the most effective methods of imparting knowledge or skills, even the subject specialist will be hampered from doing his job efficiently. It is true the art of teaching can be learnt by trial and error; but this is a long and wasteful process, and it must always be remembered that "the waste in a teacher's workshop is the lives of men." Moreover, the moment we understand that education is helping children to grow up as complete human beings and members of a society, and not merely the efficient imparting of knowledge and skills, we will realize that the teacher needs the fullest possible education himself, as a man and as a teacher, if he is to be an educator and not a pedagogue; and that for his personal development no less than his usefulness to the children under his care, both the general and professional parts of his training are essential and complementary.

"Training by itself cannot produce a teacher, yet it is absolutely essential," and to claim that "any one can teach" or "a teacher is born not made" or that a sound general education is all that is necessary for an intending teacher, is as ridiculous as saying that anyone with a general education should be allowed to practice medicine or at the Bar. Teaching, even in the narrow sense of imparting knowledge, is a highly skilled job which can be done much more efficiently with training than without it, and the moment we consider it in its widest aspects as "child nurture," we realize that there are professional elements and scientific knowledge, to say nothing of professional attitudes, values and skills, which are essential for a good teacher as they are for a doctor, and perhaps more essential, for whereas doctors are mainly

concerned with the bodies of their patients, teachers are concerned with their bodies, emotions, minds and spirits.

OBJECTIVES OF PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

While a teacher's education has much in common with that of men of other professions, yet there are elements which are not found in the education of other people. What are these distinctive elements? The National Survey of the Education of Teachers in America lists seven factors as "the minimum essentials of a teacher's professional preparation." A brief examination of these will perhaps help us to assess critically the professional elements in the course of training for teachers in the two-year colleges in England:

1. A course in Professional Orientation dealing with the place of education in society in relation to the other services and an account of the educational system in America in its sociological setting.
2. To equip teachers with essential professional tools—those professional skills and concepts required by all teachers.
3. To give teachers a sympathetic understanding of the physical, mental and social characteristics of children at all stages of development and of adults.
4. To equip them with the essential techniques and teaching methods appropriate to their subjects and grade.
5. To give them knowledge of the organization and management of class instructions in the type of school in which the teacher intends to teach.
6. To give them opportunities for acquiring a safety minimum of teaching skills through observation, participation and actual teaching under supervision.
7. To equip the individual teacher with an integrated working philosophy of education and the contributions which he may be expected to make in his field.

This is, on the whole, a comprehensive and fairly complete statement of the aims and objectives of the professional

side of a teacher's preparation. In England though the aims of professional learning are not so minutely analysed into component parts, they are broadly the same in fundamentals. Under the heading of "Professional Subjects" the MacNair Report lists three essential requirements for all students in training: *

- A. Some mastery in their own language and the power of clear speech.
- B. A grounding in the fundamental principles of education, and
- C. Some competence in the art of teaching.

The first of these is implied in the statement of American aims; under (B) will in fact be found to be included Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, and 7 and under (C) Nos. 5 and 6. This is a rough and ready division and there is much overlapping not only in the detailed statement of American aims but in the more vague and general statement of professional aims in England. The MacNair Committee clearly recognized this fact, for it qualifies its analysis of aims with the statement that "in practice the studies and activities which they involve are interlocked and become the responsibility of the staff as a whole. We treat them separately for the sake of emphasis."¹

On the whole we prefer the more general statement of aims made by the MacNair Committee to the more specific and detailed statement of the American National Survey. Too much analysis often hinders that synthesis and integration which are important if the professional development of the teacher is to be promoted as a whole. The American pattern of detailing their objectives and providing separate and fairly self-contained courses to attain each objective is to be deprecated for it leads to a multiplicity of short

¹ *Teachers and Youth Leaders*, p. 66.

courses or units of study, each under a specialist, which tend to obscure the essential unity of the whole process.

All technical education should transmit technical understanding, skill and method not as an isolated discipline but in its total human and social setting. Failure to do so is largely responsible for the failure of modern civilization to produce social peace and harmony.¹

But if the Americans tend to over-analyse, the English tend to analyse insufficiently their general conception and seldom define clearly their aims and objectives. This is wise on the whole but it sometimes leads to vagueness, diffuseness and lack of purpose in their training. A critical analysis of the present aim, content, method and organization of the professional part of the teacher's preparation will bear out the truth of this statement.

This may be divided into a theoretical and a practical part, a distinction that is artificial but convenient. The latter (which must be based on the former and closely integrated with it) will be dealt with in the next chapter under the broad heading of "Teaching Practice". In this chapter we will examine the theoretical aspects of a teacher's professional training which aims to equip him with the principles, ideals, attitudes and knowledge on which his art must be built if it is to rest on secure foundations.

PROFESSIONAL CURRICULUM

This at present generally includes the following compulsory elements or subjects.

1. *Principles of Education*—which include a study of the aims, methods and organization of education, the study of education in England and a study of child growth and development, or in other words, of Educational Psychology.

¹ *Report of the University Education Commission, 1948-49, p. 175.*

2. *Hygiene and Health Education*—including the theory and practice of physical education.

3. *English Usage*—Spoken and written. This may be included in the professional or general side.

About the desirability of these three courses there can be no question; but a closer examination of them reveals certain limitations and deficiencies in organization and content. We will examine each in turn, starting from the last.

A. *English Usage*:—Mastery of the written and spoken word is essential not only for the development of the teacher's own personality but because it is his main mode of communication with the child.

The foundations of an intending teacher's mastery of the mother tongue should be laid in the schools, but a widespread complaint of lecturers in the two-year colleges was that most of their students came to them handicapped by a very weak power of expression in speech and writing. This not only retarded their own general and professional development, but was frequently a barrier between them and the children they taught. Every two-year college gives a course in Basic English Usage for all students, but, that they cannot build on a foundation which is not there is revealed by the fact that in a recent training college examination, where students were asked to write a letter to *The Times* on one of a given set of controversial questions, only one or two scripts were found to be up to publication standard. This is a serious reflection not so much on the training colleges, which because of the pressure of work cannot devote more than a very limited amount of time to teaching students how to speak and write the mother tongue fluently and gracefully, but on the secondary schools whose main duty it is to help students to achieve this mastery

of modern English usage. In this connexion even more important than the written word for a teacher is his ability not only to speak correct and fluent English but to use his voice expressively, and to avoid monotony and indistinctness. Speech training of the more formal sort, choral speech and dramatic work of all types form a very valuable part of the training-college programme in most English training colleges. But they can accomplish very little in the limited time at their disposal if such activities have been elbowed out of the last few secondary years by the exigencies of examinations. As such stress must be placed on these activities in grammar schools, as we have seen placed on them in modern schools, if training colleges are to get students possessing those fundamentals without which most of their training will be futile.

B. *Hygiene and Health Education and Physical Training*:— Every training college student has a compulsory course in the theory and practice of healthy living and physical fitness. The value of this course is indisputable for an all-round development of the student and that he may realize that physical well-being in the child is a pre-condition to and intimately bound up with emotional and intellectual growth. This course in most colleges, if well-thought out, handled by experts, and, supplemented by games of all kinds, largely achieves its ends.

Students have complained, however, that the course often tends to be too theoretical and abstract, that it does not deal sufficiently with the physical needs and growth of the child, and that the practical part of the course is too much concerned with gymnastics. Students also seem to resent the fact that this course is compulsory, not because they fail to realize its value, but because having taken it they are often forced later to teach it in schools. They feel rightly that they

are not really well equipped enough to do so. At a recent meeting of the Association of Indian Education Students in London, the delegates unanimously voted that the physical education course should not be compulsory, and, if it was, it should only be on the consideration that they would not be forced to teach it in the schools, for they felt strongly that physical training, except in the nursery and infant schools, was a task for the expert. We are in whole-hearted agreement with this view.

C. *Principles of Education*:—The vast composite course, however, as “the principles and practice of Education”, forms the sub-structure on which the whole of the teacher’s professional, and much also of his general and personal education is reared. On its content and on the way it is handled, depends in large measure, the success or failure of the training given by individual training colleges. Through this course the students must be guided towards the attainment of a satisfactory working philosophy of life and education and to a realization of the aims, and a development of the attitudes, that will inform all their work. And through this course students must learn something of their own nature, the nature of the children they teach, and those psychological principles which they must apply in the education of children. In short, even though the whole life and work of the college is planned to this end, it is this course that will, or will not, lay the basis of a sound professional attitude and skill in the teacher.

Are these aims realized? An answer can only be attempted in the light of satisfactory knowledge of the content of these courses, some idea of how they are handled, and the results achieved. These differ so much, from region to region and from college to college, that no universally

applicable answer can be attempted. With this qualification in mind, however, there is, in spite of differences, a substantial common basis in the content of such courses and the methods used in inculcating them. Results vary, and cannot be easily assessed or compared, but the fact that some colleges stand much higher in the esteem of L.E.A's, heads, teachers, students and the general public than others, seems to indicate that they are all uniformly successful in producing good teachers.

We shall now examine critically the content and approach to most courses in "The Principles of Education" in the light of the aims outlined above.

CONTENT:— The majority of courses on "Principles" are a *mélange* or hotch-potch of a number of elements derived from various special fields, and from the combination of these elements into a loose and flexible conglomeration.

Psychology, in most training colleges, is at the heart of this course which is often built round this core. It is closely related to consideration of the aims of education derived from the needs of the child as an individual and a member of society. Closely linked with these are courses on general method and special methods for the teaching of individual subjects. Some account is generally given of school and class organization and of the past and present educational system in England with its sociological background. Individual colleges differ in their stress and grouping of these elements.

Goldsmith's College, one of the oldest and best training colleges in England groups its "Principles" courses into the following four parts: (1) Educational Principles—Aims, means and organization, (2) Educational Psychology, (3) Study of the social background of children, (4) Study of child and school hygiene.

SYLLABUS OF COURSES FOR THE TWO-YEAR STUDENTS

The syllabus is taken with varying applications according to the needs of pupils' primary (infant and junior) and post-primary (secondary) schools and includes, throughout the course, direct observation and study of children.

All students take substantial courses in the methods of teaching English and Arithmetic.

Each student does a minimum of twelve weeks of practical work consisting of teaching practice, guided observation in schools, and visits to schools of special interest.

1. EDUCATIONAL PRINCIPLES

- (i) The aims of education — individual, social, vocational and cultural.
- (ii) The means of education.
 - (a) The school as a community: freedom and discipline.
 - (b) The curriculum: in primary and postprimary schools.
 - (c) Basic techniques of reading, writing and number. Methods of class, group and individual teaching with practical demonstrations and experimental work. Other methods of organizing school activities; centres of interest, projects, group studies, environmental studies, mechanical aids — films, wireless, epidiascope and gramophones.
- (iii) The organization of education.
 - (a) Forms of primary, secondary and further education in relation to one another, to the home and to the community. Special schools, internal organization, classification and promotion.
 - (b) The English educational system as at present

organized with some reference to its development in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, and some comparison with systems other than our own.

2. EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

- (i) Emotional, social and intellectual growth in infancy, childhood and adolescence, considered with regard to the activities of home and school life, particularly the process of learning and the formation of character.
- (ii) Study of children as individuals and as members of a group. Individual differences. Use of intelligence tests, achievement tests and diagnostic tests. Backwardness — causes and treatment. Behaviour problems — causes and treatment.
- (iii) Child study. Directed observation by students of individual children in the school and in their social environment.

3. THE SOCIAL BACKGROUND OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

Types of neighbourhood. The study of a neighbourhood. The aims and methods of social survey. The family. Housing conditions. Slums and slum-clearance. Poverty : its causes, prevention and relief. Juvenile welfare and employment: regulation of hours and conditions. The child's leisure. Child delinquency. The legal protection of the child against neglect, cruelty and corruption. Social Service.

4. CHILD AND SCHOOL HYGIENE

The structure of the human body broadly treated so as to give reasons for skeleton, muscles; circulatory, respiratory, digestive, excretory, and reproductive systems; eye and ear.

Conditions of bodily health: food, fresh air and sunlight,

cleanliness, exercises and rest, warmth and clothing, care of eyesight and hearing, care of teeth.

Ailments of school children: the chief characteristics of ailing children conditions disposing to disease, common ailments.

The school building and its surroundings: conditions of a healthy school. Health teaching appropriate for children of different ages. Work of the School Health Service.

This is a fairly representative course and contains all the basic elements of a progressive "Principles" course; hence a critical analysis of its chief elements, and the way they are handled, may help to reveal the strength and limitation of such courses.

PART II

THE PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION

This consists of the (a) Aims, (b) Practices and (c) Organization of Education. Of these the value of (c) is unquestionable; it is an essential part of the teacher's knowledge in order that he may understand the educational set-up in his country, and realize the essential unity and continuity of the various stages of education and different types of schools, and his own place in the total scheme. Such a course should never be merely theoretical, or it will never carry conviction into the heart of the senior school teacher, for instance, that his work is dependent on, and related to, that of his infant and junior colleagues, and that they have a much more difficult task than his — even though he may have greater prestige in the public eye, and a higher standing in society. Hence, to be fruitful it must be, and is in most English training colleges, supplemented by visits to, and where possible, short periods of teaching in all types of

schools, and in the institutions of the allied social services—reformatories, child guidance clinics etc. This part of the professional course is very satisfactorily handled in most English training colleges.

B. THE PRACTICES AND METHODS OF EDUCATION

Lecturers generally agree on the value of lectures and demonstrations of general and special methods of teaching the various school subjects. Teachers must know not only the subject matter of their lessons but the most effective way of presenting them to students and guiding and stimulating them to learn, to grow and to develop. "Methods" courses to be fruitful must be based on psychological findings, and be practicable. They bear most fruit when students have a wide basis of psychological experience, and academic knowledge, in the light of which they can work out individual techniques, using the methods exhibited to them as stepping stones. Hence there must be a close and integral connexion between "Methods" courses, and the students' experience of children, gained either through teaching practice, or other less formal means.

Most training colleges are agreed on the necessity of acquainting students not only with sound "methods" tested by experience, but also the new methods and new media, and with the general principles that should underlie such courses. But they differ on the way in which they present these methods to their students. The two most common ways are :—

(i) General methods are dealt with by the Education lecturer, and courses of special methods are given by the specialist lecturers who accompany their lectures by "Demonstration" or "Open" lessons.

(ii) No special courses of "Special Methods" are given, instruction in the best ways of teaching their subjects being provided incidentally by specialist lecturers as an integrated part of their subject-matter courses. Whatever method is adopted we feel it is essential that methods should be handled by the specialist lecturers concerned, especially in these days when so much stress is being placed on projects, Environmental Studies, Activity methods etc.

These methods involve a new relationship between subject matter and methods; The distinction between them is blurred, and both become means towards a single end—the activity or experience is considered valuable; and moreover they need a wide background of experience of subject matter, and method, to be successfully "put across". It is not easy to get lecturers who have that wide and rich knowledge of their subject and related subjects, and the necessary experience of children and teaching methods to be capable of initiating their students successfully into these new methods. But lecturers everywhere are experimenting with them courageously, and learning from their own mistakes, as well as those of their students.

On the whole, "Methods" courses in two-year colleges are satisfactorily handled, and are neither too theoretical nor mechanical, two defects such courses are commonly liable to. No cut and dried methods are imposed on students, a wide variety of approaches based on psychological principles are demonstrated, both by specialist lecturers and expert class teachers. New methods are courageously experimented with and students encouraged to use them, and every attempt is made during the "Teaching Practice" periods to help students to weld theory and practice together, and to apply the methods for which they have been given a theoretical justification in the lecture or discussion period.

A. THE AIMS OF EDUCATION

A consideration of these with a view to helping students to formulate a satisfactory and satisfying philosophy of life and education should be *the* most important part of the "Principles" course, and of the professional education of the teacher. The foundation of professional education should be not only technical skill but also a sense of social responsibility, and appreciation of social and human values and relationships, and disciplined power to see realities without prejudice or blind commitment. In practice it is generally the weakest part. Students, it is true, are introduced to the main individual, social, cultural and vocational theories of education. But these are generally so bound up with, subordinated to, and often deduced from, the facts furnished by Psychology and Sociology that students often are led to believe, with Professor Walters, that "the only valid foundation for educational theory is psychology," or perhaps sociology, if the education lecturer happens to be a sociologist. Hence they are seldom, or never, brought face to face with the ultimate question of, to quote Plato: "What a man is and how he should live," answers to which alone can supply those values and attitudes that eventually make up one's philosophy of life and education. Such a philosophy is essential to give teachers a clear conception, not only of immediate but of ultimate aims, a standard of values and (attitudes that) a faith in their work that will triumph over adverse conditions in the schools and the monotony of the daily grind and sustain them amid the burden of the day and the heat. Psychology and Sociology have made valuable contributions to our understanding of the aims of education but they can never provide ultimate aims because they are defective and limited in their view of the nature of man, and ignore his final destiny.

What the world most needs and most lacks today is a clear and worthy view of life. If the training colleges were to be asked what they were doing to help their students to acquire that "vital system of ideas by which each age lives" that "repertory of convictions that becomes the effective guide of his existence"¹ which Ortega Y'Gasset holds to be essential for a truly educated person, (and doubly essential for all professional men who, without it, are apt to be unable to see the wood for the trees), their answer would perforce have to be "little or nothing". Some colleges it is true, try to remedy this vital omission in their courses on the aims of education by courses on "Divinity" which provide a well-reasoned interpretation of Christian views about the nature and destiny of man. But, unfortunately, because they are compelled by statute to be "undenominational" and because many of their students are not professed or practising Christians, the L.E.A. colleges cannot remedy this defect. In the modern world when not only Christian, but also fundamental human values are being threatened by the rise of new ideologies it is absolutely imperative that students should be helped to formulate a satisfying philosophy of life and education, which may or may not be religious.

Most important of all, we need as teachers people of conviction who have honestly built up their philosophy of life (or are in process of so doing) and have embraced a faith which is a base of action. This does not mean a complete or static faith, the vital quality is willingness to take one's stand somewhere, albeit experimentally, rather than to sit for ever on the fence above the conflicts, in strict non-commitment for such an attitude is, as Sir Walter Moberly has pointed out, one of "false neutrality".²

That training college authorities are alive to this problem

¹ Jose Ortega Y'Gasset, *Mission of a University*, p. 44.

² Marjorie Reeves, *Growing up in Modern Society*, p. 112.

is shown by the fact that the 1948 conference of the Association of Training Colleges and Departments of Education dealt with the question of "The Development of a Philosophy of Education in the Modern World." Professor Fletcher, the Chairman, in an introductory letter, set out clearly the kernel of the problem:

Underneath all educational aims there always lies some philosophy of man and some conception of his nature and destiny. Some philosophy of society is also required for educational institutions which must introduce the young to adult group life. In addition all education must in some degree implement a moral philosophy that will show men how to decide and enable them to act.

In the past we have often put aside discussion of such major issues because men have fought so bitterly over them. As a result there has been drained from our higher education, first, well-nigh all philosophy and then well-nigh all religion. But today students grow tired of academic neutrality and seek a philosophy that will give significance and value to the decisive events that make up their lives. We realize too that there is no guarantee that the free institutions of Europe can be safeguarded for as much as one generation unless they are supported by people with a firm philosophy of freedom. For freedom is slowly established but quickly lost. It is doubtful if it can be maintained in the face of a sceptical or relativist moral philosophy.

For all these reasons, those who work in Colleges and Departments of Education must consider afresh the development of a philosophy of education.¹

Students are in full agreement with this view. At a recent meeting of the Association of London Education Students it was agreed that students needed a wider conception of education than was given in most "Principles of Education" courses, that what they really wanted was a basis of philosophical belief on which to form their philosophy of life and education; for this philosophy, implied and expressed, it

¹ *Bulletin of Education*—Development of a Philosophy of Education.

was agreed, was bound to influence the relations with the children they had to teach.

The problem could not be better or more succinctly stated than in the words of Prof. Fletcher quoted above; that the solution is by no means easy was shown by the fact that the A.T.C.D.E. and the A.L.E.S. Conferences, apart from agreeing on the need for resolving conflicts and attaining unity and harmony in their philosophy of education, were unable to come to any definite conclusions. No cut and dried solution is possible, for no one philosophy can be imposed on students, even if there was agreement on the essentials of such a philosophy. But every college should have a distinct and separate course in the "Philosophy of Education". The details of such a course would have to be worked out by each college for itself. The denominational colleges would no doubt base such a course on the essentials of the Christian philosophy of the nature of man and his ultimate destiny. Others could make students realize the fundamental issues at stake by an intensive study of some great seminal writer, such as Plato or Rousseau, used as a starting point for an examination of basic values. In this connexion we feel very strongly with Sir Walter Moberly that lecturers should abandon their "sit on the fence" attitude of "false neutrality" and express their own deeply felt convictions, not with the idea of imposing these on their students but in order to stimulate them to realize that they have such convictions, and that they are a vital part of every successful teacher's psychological and spiritual make-up. I vividly remember, in this connexion, a conversation I had with a training college student over a cup of coffee in a Bristol café during which he said, among other things, that he would consider his period of training a success if it helped him to formulate a working philosophy of life and education that

would give meaning and significance to his future work; and a failure, if it did not. That sums up the question in a nutshell.

Every training college then should have a special course on the Philosophy of Education, which may be supplemented by one on Divinity or Religious Education in denominational colleges. The content of such a course should be worked out by each college but there should be frequent consultations about the philosophy of education. This course should be at the very heart of the "Principles Course". If teachers in the past, have not achieved all that they would have, it is mainly because they have lacked standards, values, motives, and incentives to stimulate and bring out the best in them. In this connexion the words of the Indian Commission on University Education are worth quoting:

The civilized peoples of the world are puzzled as to why intelligence and education do not bring penance and order, as to why democratic constitutions do not bring democracy, why religion does not bring brotherhood.

One reason is that while professional men (and teachers especially hold a key position in modern society), professional education has failed in one of its large responsibilities, that of developing overall principles and philosophy by which professional men should live and work.

This failure must be remedied in the near future, at least with regard to teachers, the nation-builders and world-builders of tomorrow, if the world is to survive, and if peace and harmony are once more to reign in a war-weary world.

CHAPTER VI THE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF TEACHERS: II

IN the last chapter we considered the strength and limitation of Part I of Goldsmith's "Principles of Education" Course. In this chapter we shall deal with its remaining elements.

PART II

PSYCHOLOGY IN THE TRAINING COLLEGE CURRICULUM

The growing stress on this subject has been one of the most striking features of the evolution and growth of the professional part of the curriculum in the training colleges in England. In 1929 Sandiford, an American observer, found the treatment of this subject perfunctory and academic, and one of the weakest features of the professional training of teachers in England. Since then the pendulum has swung with a vengeance to the other extreme. "The first decades of the 20th century may well stand out in history on account of their discovery of the child."¹

The corresponding growth of Psychology in importance, and in the time allotted to it, in the Training College Curriculum has been so meteoric that the MacNair Committee felt compelled to sound a warning that some Psychology lectures "exact too large a proportion of the time available, and expect too much of their students."² Not only does Psychology loom large in many training college courses, but its devotees often make extravagant claims for it. C. F. Welters, in an article on "Psychology in the Training of Teachers", claims:

¹ A. Kennedy, *The Teacher in the Making*, p. 12.

² *Teachers and Youth Leaders*, p. 67.

The only sound foundation for Educational theory and practice is Psychology, adding somewhat condescendingly, "the philosophical discussion is not without interest."¹

This is absurd, and going too far. Psychology is a positive and not a formative science; it can tell us how far, and in what manner, we can best achieve our ends, but it can never, by itself, determine goals, values, and ideals which lie in the realm of the philosophy of education, and of religion. In short it has everything to tell us of the practice of education, less about its theory and philosophy. Yet it is our experience that Prof. Walter's view is implicit in very many training college "Principles" courses, and that their students leave the training colleges with no clearer idea of the fundamental aims and values of education than they can deduce from psychological facts and theories. This is a defect which, as we have stressed in the preceding chapter, is in urgent need of being remedied. Without a well-planned course in the "Philosophy of Education" to complement, to complete, and balance the study of Psychology, the "Principles" course will remain lop-sided, incomplete, unbalanced, without depth or substance.

VALUE OF PSYCHOLOGY IN THE TRAINING COURSE

Keeping the above basic limitation in mind, there is no denying that Psychology must have a very important position in any dynamic and well-planned "Professional" syllabus, and play a vital role in any scheme of teacher-training. The first and last duty of the teacher is to understand the child.

Interest in children as children is vital for all who desire to work among the young; for the teacher it is the first essential.

¹ *B.J.E.P.* Nov. '35, p. 251.

Without it the teacher may be a clever craftsman, but his thought will be centred solely upon the subject matter he is called upon to teach. By the children he will be regarded as an exponent, more or less exacting, of an external efficiency; they will never look to him for understanding guidance.¹

Education to be effective, and more than mere instruction, must be based on the physical and psychological needs of children at the various stages of their growth. Hence a teacher must know what these needs are if he is to satisfy them and how that growth takes place, if he is to help and not hinder the process. Subject matter and methods are important, but they are means to an end — the development and growth of the individual child. Psychology forms — or should form — the basis of all sound “Teaching Methods” which will only be vital if they are based on psychological facts (i.e. on why children learn best in certain circumstances etc.) and in so far as they are applications of psychological principles to the classroom. A study of Psychology is also important to the teacher for a more personal reason. Such a study will make students realize they are educators not pedagogues; their job is not a dull mechanical routine but a living, dynamic activity; not stuffing Latin or Mathematics into an unwilling John, but helping him to “grow up and live”; not a profession only but a vocation and a form of social service, which will give them a new, and more significant, understanding of its importance and worthwhileness.

A study of Psychology is also of value in helping teachers to understand themselves, and in doing so to understand the children they teach i.e. the teacher, for instance, who realizes the existence of aggressive impulses in himself will better understand and sympathize with those of children.

¹ Kennedy, *The Making of the Teacher*, p. 11.

That the values of a study of Psychology do not only exist in theory, or in the lecturer's head, but are actually experienced by students has been proved by "follow-up" studies made by Prof. Lloyd-Evans¹ and Miss Margaret Phillips with two-year trained teachers after they had been teaching for a few years.

Prof. Lloyd-Evans's students were unanimous in their opinion of the value of Psychology. They stressed, in particular, its influence upon their understanding of themselves; in the greater understanding of children as individuals and in groups; and finally in their academic work, teaching as it did the "Laws of Learning etc." In view of this whole body of evidence Prof. Evans concludes that "Psychology has come to permeate the atmosphere of a Training College. It is true now to say that without Psychology, there would be no reason for our existence."²

Miss Margaret Phillips³ found her ex-students, especially the women, even more enthusiastic in their appreciation of the value of Psychology to them, both for their personal and professional development. Personally they confessed, their study of Psychology had helped them in the knowledge of themselves, in the development of a balanced and philosophic attitude to life and education, in the understanding of their fellow-men and a deeper interest in them; in general it had convinced them of the necessity of looking beyond the

¹ "In understanding in some small way the reasons for my own behaviour and attitude, I feel better equipped and more confident to teach and control the lives of children in the schools"; in their relations with others "almost without exception the students say they have gained in tolerance, in sympathy, in the understanding of the moods of others, in power to live in a community." Prof. Lloyd-Evans, 'The Place of Psychology in the Training of Teachers', *B.J.E.P.* Nov. '35.

² *Ibid.*

³ Miss M. Phillips, 'Professional Courses in the Training of Teachers', Part I, *B.J.E.P.* Nov. '31.

surface of things and appearance to underlying motives, principles, and causes. Professionally it contributed to the growth of educational ideals and aims, revealed the fundamental difficulty, and consequently the interest and challenge of the teaching problem; and convinced them that the child and not the subject was the first consideration in education. Through their Psychology courses they had acquired an appreciation of, and respect for, individual differences, and an understanding of the maladjustments and abnormalities of children, their underlying causes and some idea of their treatment; and finally an insight into the learning process and the best means of promoting it. All this knowledge, students agreed, had helped them immensely in their personal development, and made their work in the classrooms easier, pleasanter and more successful.

In spite of this impressive body of evidence, culled from teachers and students on the indisputable importance and value of Psychology, we still agree with the MacNair Committee that it is being given too great a place in many training courses. There are limitations, not only in what students can hope to gain from such a study, but, also, in what they do gain from it in actual practice. Students in most training colleges are immature and inexperienced, with little or no real experience of children to vitalize their study of Psychology. Hence with them Psychology is not, as it should be, really fruitful, "a felt growth through experience"; much of their knowledge remains academic and partly assimilated; and they have great difficulty in relating it to children or translating it into terms of classroom methods and techniques. The MacNair Committee says:

Study of mental growth and behaviour of children is vital to the student's practical experience and observation of

children, and must therefore be intimately connected with his school practice.¹

This vital interaction and cross-fertilization of theory and practice, of text-book knowledge and first-hand experience of children, is something which most training college lecturers confess to be very difficult to achieve because of the student's immaturity and lack of experience of children, and of adverse conditions in the schools which make it difficult for them to demonstrate and apply their theories. Hence, much of the Psychology they study remains in the realm of "pure theory", and is soon forgotten after the examination. Soon two-year students often find much of it "above their heads", at least in college, though later it may acquire more significance when experience supplies the data lacking in college.

PRACTICAL STUDIES IN PSYCHOLOGY

Realizing that Psychology lectures will be merely "potted information" without reality and vitality if divorced from school life and work and actual experience of children, most training colleges in England are endeavouring to supply their students with wide and varied opportunities for direct and intimate contact with children in all types of situations, not only in the schools but also in their homes, in the streets, at work and at play, in child guidance clinics and at play centres; for they realize it is only by studying the child in his "natural" environments that the record of his development is more intimate and accurate and the character of his psychological make-up more comprehensive and complete.²

¹ *Teachers and Youth Leaders*, p. 67.

² "In attempting to record a child's development, it would be a mistake to attend only to his behaviour in the more official moments of his life in the school e.g., his work and his behaviour to the teacher and fellows in the

A real, experienced understanding of children is basic to a teacher's success. Most teachers fail because they are out of touch with children and do not understand their needs. Much of the knowledge they need can be given through a well-planned theoretical course on "Educational Psychology"; but this knowledge, for the most part, will remain what A.N. Whitehead calls "inert knowledge", unless its dry bones are clothed with flesh and blood and vitalized from practical first-hand experience of children in all types of situations, and in all their "infinite variety". Teaching practice gives little opportunity for real contact with children, hence it must be supplemented in training colleges by the provision of liberal opportunities for direct contact with children in a variety of situations. Such practical experience is the only basis of any real understanding of children; it is an indispensable supplement to lecture-room Psychology which, without it, will remain so much educational lumber, forgotten as soon as the final examination is over.

Informed circles, at the official level and in the training colleges themselves, in England and Scotland, are fully alive to this fact. We have already quoted the MacNair Committee's opinion on this subject. The Scottish Advisory Council in their recommendations on the "Training of Teachers" expressed themselves in even more forthright terms on the value of first-hand observation of children, and the place of such direct contact in vital and progressive

classroom . . . whether in periods of free activity, in 'playtime' in the school play-ground, or in glimpses we may have of him in the street or home garden, of school hours, the young child will show himself to us more freely and fully during his play than he can do in his 'work', or in those activities more ordered or controlled by us . . . He may give us information in this way which we can then use in order to understand his response or lack of response, to our efforts to teach him and to direct his activities." Dr. Susan Isaacs, *Educational Guidance of the School Child*, p. 65.

Psychology courses. Stating that Psychology is often regarded by students as too abstract and academic and to have little relevance to their work, the Council state bluntly and unreservedly:

This is one of the cases where we must face the realities of the situation. If the Psychology course does not, in fact, fertilize the teacher's professional work, it should either be modified in such a way that it will, or be omitted from the professional training and counted as one of the optional subjects. We believe that the subject can effect this fertilization, but it will do so only if it begins with and frequently returns to the actual child. For this reason the teacher student, at an early stage, should have abundant opportunities for studying children's behaviour not merely in the artificial conditions of the classroom but in play centres, scout troops, boys' and girls' clubs and child guidance clinics. Through this experience he should learn what to observe and how to observe; and group discussions of his observations will inevitably lead him to make excursions into Psychology proper. He will thus obtain a thorough knowledge of child development and of the ways in which Psychology can help him in handling children and presenting educational activities to them at the various stages of development. He will obtain that psychological insight which is of more importance to the teacher than knowledge about Psychology together with a sympathetic understanding of children and a respect for their liberty of development. Towards the end, there should, of course, be a process of systematization of the knowledge gained and the student should have a grasp of Psychology as a science in its own right.¹

That these views are not confined to administrators but wholeheartedly shared by training college principals,

¹ Scottish Advisory Council on Education Report, *The Training of Teachers*, pp. 18-19. In a private memorandum of criticisms and suggestions on the content and handling of the present training college curriculum in England, a group of His Majesty's Inspectors of Training Colleges lay it down as essential that "all students should get to know as much as possible about children from first-hand contact with them in and out of school. The basis of this study should be guided observation and recording, strengthened by discussion, reading and lectures."—*Memorandum on the Training College Curriculum*, p. 2.

lecturers and students was shown by the fact that the Committee of the T.C.A. and C.O.P. found in their investigations and joint deliberations a "growing emphasis on the value of first-hand observations of children" which was borne out by the fact that 34 out of 42 training colleges were making every effort to provide as many and as varied opportunities, for such observation and direct contact with children as possible.

Miss Aiken, an impartial observer, from South Africa, in a thesis submitted for the Associateship of the Institute of Education in 1946-47 on "Opportunities for First-Hand Contact between Student-Teachers and Children", gives a full and detailed account of such practical studies which, she states, are slowly but surely taking the centre of the stage in the Psychology courses in most of the training colleges in England. My experience bears this out, and though the lack of time and the pressure of a crowded curriculum leave not much time for such experiences, there is no doubt that Psychology lecturers are making increasing and effective use of them to supplement, give point to, and vitalize their lectures.

These practical studies take a variety of forms. They fall into two main groups — the study of individual children in and out of school, and the study of groups of children in the classroom and in play centres and clubs of all types. They are carried out by individual students or in small groups.

INDIVIDUAL STUDIES

These are of two types:

Occasional Observations

Individual children of various age groups are observed

and studied in and outside the school, at home, in the streets, in the parks, or at the cinema — in fact, wherever children gather and express themselves freely, uninhibited by the rather formal atmosphere and strict discipline of the classroom. These observations are later discussed in the lecture room, and general conclusions drawn which are systematized, deepened and made more coherent by appropriate reading.

A variation of this type of observation is the adoption by the student or students of a "co-operative" family or families in the neighbourhood of the college. Visits are made once or twice a week, and, aided by a suitable schedule (such as Gesell or Susan Isaacs), students make records of the children's development, and of the home environment and its possible effects on the former.

Prolonged, Detailed and Intensive Studies

Each student, aided by a suitable schedule (*see* Appendix II), makes a detailed and intensive case study of an individual child from the age group he or she intends to teach, with the object of gaining some idea of the child as a growing and developing individual, living in a series of small communities all of which influence and are influenced by him. These studies are not meant to be scientific (comparison between the students' findings, and those of trained experts like Gesell and Susan Isaacs soon makes the students aware of this) but they are invaluable as a training in observation as a linking of theory and practice, books and life, theories with facts and as a means of making students aware of the characteristics of growth in children, of their individual differences, and finally of the impact of their personality on the child and the necessity for respecting the child's nascent personality.

Prof. H. R. Hamley, late Professor of Psychology at the Institute of Education, was of the considered opinion that :

The young teacher could do nothing more useful during his years of professional training than study the mental and temperamental qualities of a single child from as many angles and in as many situations, as possible.¹

Most of the training college lecturers, with whom we discussed this matter were only too eager to second this opinion, even while they bewailed the fact that they often lacked the time to do all they would wish to in this matter. Students too are keenly alive to the value of such a study — their views are summed up by one student who, on being questioned on how such a study had helped, replied, “One thing I have learnt — what I will have to deal with in a class of forty individuals!”

The fact that this startling revelation did not lead to an immediate resignation, or to despair, speaks volumes for her courage, and of the success of the education she had received at the training college!

Besides these individual studies of normal children, students frequently attend nearby child guidance clinics where, guided by experts, they study some of the main types of abnormality and maladjustments found in children, their symptoms, causes and treatment. Teachers are not meant to be psychiatrists nor is it wise for them to dabble in this delicate and difficult science, but they should know enough of the psychology of abnormality and subnormality to enable them to discover its existence in their pupils, and to send them to the appropriate experts for diagnosis and treatment. Study of the abnormal has frequently led to a more sane and wholesome approach to the normal which indeed reveals more of human nature, the dark and

¹ ‘The Place of Psychology in the Training of Teachers’, *B.J.E.P.*, Feb. ’36, p. 7.

hidden places in childhood, the inner motives and springs of conduct, the all-pervading emotional factor etc. All these can be better learnt from a study of those who are engaged in kicking over the traces, than of those who have themselves well under control and have achieved some measure of mental and emotional stability.

“Every Training College should have a child guidance clinic associated with it, in the same building if possible, as this is *par excellence* the place for child study” states O. T. Dreyer and has drawn up a formidable list of advantages to justify his thesis. Of these perhaps the most important is the insight which attendance at such a clinic will give students as to the true nature and cure of the problems of children such as delinquency, backwardness, subnormality, emotional instability of all types, maladjustments of one kind or another. Regular visits to a child guidance clinic will also make students realize the relative influence of the home and school “for better and for worse”, the necessity of approaching education from the child’s point of view, and the all-important truth that the teacher’s real mission and *raison d’être* is not to teach “school”, nor even to teach children subjects, but the all-round character and personality-development of the child — and the further realization that any failure of his mission, or whittling down of it, will help to produce the “problem” and “maladjusted” children who throng the child guidance clinics, with the consequent human wastage involved.

GROUP STUDIES

Besides these individual studies of children, students also observe and record the behaviour of children in groups against their social and educational background. Such “group studies”, generally of children of a particular age

range i.e., 2-5, 5-7, 7-11 and 11-15; — are carried out not only in nursery, infant, junior and secondary schools but also by the students during their participation in various types of social work such as play centres, Associations of Boy Scouts and Girl Guides; Boys' and Girls' Clubs, separate and mixed for children of different ages; and the running Holiday Homes and Camps for school children. Miss Aiken states that "contacts with children through Social Services has been more and more recognized as part of the training of teachers in England," adding, "such contacts are extremely valuable."

Being a form of service to the community, they make students and the public realize that teaching is a form of social service, and the place of the school in the social pattern; contribute to their personal growth and professional knowledge; extend and deepen their understanding of children in their natural social settings; and bring home to them the influence of other social agencies, such as the home and the club, of a child's play no less than his work, on the individual growth and development of the child.

The primary aim of such participation in social work must however be kept carefully in view — it is not to make the teacher shoulder, in addition to his own work, the duties of a social worker, but to learn, to know and understand children better.

Perhaps the best, most easily organized and cheapest place for such group studies of children is the play centre the effective organization-running of which, and its undoubted advantages, are dealt with in detail in Miss Dorothy Gardiner's delightfully human account of "The Children's Play Centre". It may not be possible for every training college to have a child guidance clinic, suitably equipped and expert-staffed, attached to it as Mr. Dreyer

suggests, but it can certainly have a play centre for children of the locality. Such a play centre will provide a wonderful laboratory for the observation of children, when they are most natural. One of the greatest values which play centre work has for students is that it has given them an intimate friendly contact with children, and that it gives it to them early in and continuously throughout their training. Well organized and equipped with a variety of cheap but suggestive play materials such a play centre can teach students more Psychology than many a learned lecture, or hours of pouring over Psychology textbooks.

We make no apology for dwelling at such length, and in such great detail, on these individual and group practices in Psychology which are changing the face of, and rendering more vital and useful, the Psychology syllabus which plays so large a part in the professional curriculum of all intending teachers. This is as it should be. Psychology is a science,¹ and, like all sciences, it must start with particular instances and first-hand observations before it generalizes — in other words practical experience, as far as possible of children before lectures, or better still lectures based on the students' findings in their contacts with children.

Two things, however, must be continually borne in mind, when arranging for such activities and experiences. Firstly, they must not be an extra but an integral part of the course, related both to the student's theoretical studies and his preliminary practice in teaching. And secondly, to be fruitful, they need careful preparation, supervision, guidance and follow-up. Students must be given, or must work out from their reading with the help of their Psychology lectures, observation schedules (such as that in Appendix I)

¹ *Psychology in the Training College-Associateship*, 1938-9, p. 11.

so that they know what to observe and when to observe; they must be taught to distinguish between observation and interpretation and their observation must be followed up by group discussions with the lecturers to correct possible errors in their records, and add to this growth of their understanding of children. Such studies are revolutionizing the Psychology courses in English training colleges. The revolution was long overdue.

BASIC CONTENT OF THE PSYCHOLOGY COURSE

As we have indicated above, a significant change is taking place in the approach to, and treatment of, the Psychology course. A similar change is observable in its actual content. Ten years ago the stress was on a systematic and scientific study of such academic questions as the nature of sensation and perception, instincts, conditioned reflexes, the laws of learning etc., all of which was no doubt useful but was too abstract and unrelated to the actual needs of the classroom. Syllabuses were academic and overloaded with inert knowledge. Much of this material still lingers in many training college syllabuses but it is fast disappearing. Syllabuses are being de-academized and made more functional. This is as it should be. To quote Whitehead "a student should not be taught more than he can think about one may add (and in the case of Psychology) more than he can actually acquire and experience understanding of." Selection is of the essence of teaching. This is true of all subjects — it is true in a special manner of Psychology where the problem is, not how much but what to teach. The core of most progressive and enlightened Psychology syllabuses is now a developmental study of the child, physically, emotionally, intellectually, and morally from birth to maturity, (based partly on observation and partly on

reading and discussions of the findings of such experts as Gesell, Susan Isaac, Burt, Hamley and others), the main aim of which is to create in students the right attitude to children, and to help them to the beginnings of an understanding of the way in which children think, feel and act at different stages of their growth. This is supplemented by study of such topics as backwardness, intelligence, imagery, memory and juvenile delinquency etc. Such courses are much less ambitious in outlook than the older ones, and they only aim to make a beginning that will start the young teacher on a study that will, and must, continue throughout life. The training college, which sends out a student who thinks he knows all about children and who has neither the wish nor the inclination to continue his study of them throughout life has failed in its mission.

In recent years, two bits of research have been carried out in England and effort made to determine the best content of a Psychology course from the students' point of view. Prof. Hamley, on the basis of students' replies a few years after leaving college, to his question as to what part of their Psychology course they found to be of most practical value in their work, suggests that the Psychology syllabus should consist of four main elements:

I. *A study of physical, emotional, initial growth and development of the child from birth to maturity* — in terms of needs not instincts. This would include a study of temperament, intelligence and individual differences.

II. *The psychology of school life and work.* The teaching as a science and as an art, and of psychological methods of teaching special subjects, and types of children.

III. *The psychology of abnormality and of mental hygiene.* This should include a special study of the nature and treatment of backwardness, general and specific, and of

other emotional disorders and maladjustments. "There is no information," says Prof. Hamley, from his wide experience, "for which the young teacher is more grateful than that which enables him to meet the needs of abnormal children."

IV. *Practical work.* Related to school life, and work, such as the use of intelligence and attainment tests etc.

Prof. Hamley's questionnaire was sent to graduates trained at the Institute of Education, the University Training Department of the London University. On the basis of a similar questionnaire circulated among two-year trained teachers, asking the question "What Psychology do teachers most need?" Prof. A. F. Walters found his ex-students also insisted that while the syllabus should include a study of such subjects as the laws of learning, memory etc., yet the chief emphasis in the course should be on problems of development and personality, for it was in this field that teachers encounter their most serious difficulties. The teachers further emphasized that Educational Psychology should be treated as a branch of Social Psychology, and that the course should not be too narrow or exclusively professional. An interesting feature of their reply, which should serve as a warning to those enthusiasts who wish to overload the training college Psychology syllabus with such elements, was that "most of the teachers thought that mental testing had little bearing on their work."¹

Judged in the light of these general criteria and broad outlines the more detailed Goldsmith's College Course, given in the last chapter, is quite satisfactory.

With this remark we end our examination of Psychology in the training college course. We have devoted a great deal of time to it because it is, in fact, the most important, and sometimes almost the sole element, in most training

¹ "Psychology in the Training of Teachers", *B.J.F.P.*, Nov. '36.

college professional "Principles of Education" courses, whether treated separately or in combination with a study of the aims, methods and organizations of education. Here we must be clear about its real value, its strength and limitations and how this value can best be realized.

There remain two minor but important elements in the Goldsmith's "Principles Course"—Parts III and IV.

THE SOCIAL BACKGROUND OF CHILDREN AND CHILD AND SCHOOL HYGIENE

Both courses are essential to a full understanding of the child as an individual and as a member of his community.

We feel, however, that these two courses should and could be integrated with that on "Educational Psychology", in a single course on "The Development and Growth of the Child in Society" in which the biological and psychological aspects of growth could be studied in relation to the social environments of the child: the home, family, school, local community etc.

We shall now sum up briefly the substance of our views on a "Principles of Education" course suitable for a teacher today which we have endeavoured to set forth in the last chapter and this one. A modern "Principles" course, we feel, should be analysed into the following main sub-divisions which we name in order of priority and importance.

At the very centre of the "Principles" curriculum should be (a) A course on the philosophy of education for all training colleges which may be supplemented by one in Divinity in the denominational colleges:

Every teacher must have a convinced philosophy of life and rule his life by it. He is not otherwise fit to be allowed to act as a guide in the art and purpose of living; and most certainly

he should never be allowed to attempt to act as a guide to impressionable children.¹

The content of such a course should be worked out by each college for itself, but there should be frequent consultations among the lecturers concerned to endeavour to work out, if possible, the broad essentials of a common philosophy of education. This course should be at the very heart of the "Principles" course and aim to give the teachers the ideals, principles, attitude and enthusiasm which are, in our opinion, more essential even than the second part of the "Principles" course, vitally important though it is.

(b) The growth and development of the child in society: a study of the child in society— a developmental study of the physical, emotional and intellectual growth of the child as an individual and of his social development as a member of various communities: home, school, church, social community, state and the world. If there is time, other topics such as intelligence testing, psychology of abnormality etc. may be included.

(c) The practice and methods of education: and its organization in England considered from a historical and sociological standpoint.

In making such suggestions we are aware of the practical difficulty of enforcing them, and we agree with the MacNair Committee's statement:

The main difficulty about providing for the studies which we have grouped under the term "Principles of Education" is that, having regard to the future needs, there are not sufficient people in this country qualified to deal with them.²

In the long run the utility of any course no matter how perfect it may look on paper, is due to the way in which it

¹ Dent, *To be a Teacher*, p. 41.

² *Teachers and Youth Leaders*, p. 69.

is "put across" by the lecturer. Hence we heartily second this proposal that experienced teachers be given scholarships to study some aspects of the above course and then appoint them to the training colleges. The new institutes could easily arrange suitable courses of studies for such students; the material is plentiful; all that is needed is the proper training and education.

The right type of lecturers being provided and equipped with the necessary knowledge and experience, it won't be long before training colleges turn out teachers who are professionally as well equipped as it is possible to equip them in the short space of two years, teachers who are not merely narrow specialists, but men of broad vision, sound principles and progressive practice.

CHAPTER VII

THE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF THE TEACHER—PRACTICAL TRAINING

THE professional part of the teacher's preparation consists of two parts:—the theoretical background given by the professional subjects and the practical side, based on the former, in which a student is given actual experience of teaching and a practical training in the elements of his craft. This division, we realize, is artificial, yet it has to be made for convenience.

Theory and practice correlate naturally, and cannot be separated, without doing violence to both. Theory without practice is sterile and even dangerous; practice without theory is blind. The Professor of Method, theorizing in his study, and the "rule of thumb" teacher, who is contemptuous of "new-fangled theories", are equally at fault. The former loses all contact with children and classroom conditions, the latter may instruct efficiently, but he will never educate. Sound theory is sound practice conscious of itself, sound practice is sound theory unconscious of itself; unless the two interpenetrate, inform, and complete each other, neither will be vital or dynamic. This is especially true with regard to teaching, for, without a realization of individual differences, or the needs of children, teaching can never be more than a mere trial and error affair and will degenerate into mere technique — a shadow without substance.

Practice teaching, then, cannot be divorced from theory: rather, to be fruitful, it must be an application of that theory, a period during which the student can test the validity of hypotheses propounded in the lecture room, and observe the putting into practice of the theories he has studied. Birchenough, commenting on the Regulations of the Board,

1922, which first stipulated a minimum period of 12 weeks' teaching practice, remarks that this period was too short to produce a high standard of craftsmanship. This seems to reveal a misconception about teaching practice—namely, that its aim is to teach the students how to teach, to turn out a finished craftsman. This is expecting too much; no period of training practice, however extended, could do this. Teaching is both a craft and an art. The scientific part which consists of psychologically sound and well-tried techniques and skills may be acquired in a comparatively short time under expert guidance; but the art of teaching takes a lifetime to develop.

What then are the aims and objectives of teaching practice. They are broadly as follows:—

1. To familiarize the student with the personal and social implication of the "school situation", to give him a real experience of children and to provide an incentive, and a basis, for the understanding of psychology and method.

The securing of a desirable harmony between theory and practice is one of the most difficult things to accomplish in the training college.

2. To bring about the cross-fertilization of theory and practice "to provide concrete evidence, illustration and examples, to supplement and give point to the student's training. The schools are his laboratory and the scene of his field studies." Hence the student must be free to experiment, to test out in practice the theories and methods discussed in the lecture room and to see demonstrations of such methods by experts so that he may have a basis of experience on which to build his own method, for, in the last analysis, every teacher must develop an individual method. This

method in all its fullness and variety will only develop and take shape in the school itself, when the young teacher begins teaching, but the period of teaching practice can help to set his feet on the road to such a personal art by giving him, what the Americans call "a safety minimum of teaching skill."

These, then, are the main objectives of the period of teaching practice. They must be kept in the forefront when planning those details of organization that can most effectively promote them. Before we discuss these we must record that training college opinion, among staff and students, is unanimous on the necessity and value of teaching practice, though there is a wide difference of opinion as to the best way of organizing it so as to derive the maximum benefit from it.

Students regard practice teaching as the most valuable part of their training course. Lectures on Psychology or "Principles of Education" often seem unreal, but school practice enables them to get to grips with their job and get the "feel" of it. It gives them confidence in themselves, and their choice of vocation and an opportunity to test out theoretical knowledge in practice.

For the staff also, teaching practice is invaluable in making them aware of the potentialities of their students, for showing them the success or failure — more often the latter — of their "Methods" courses, and making them realize how much, or how little, psychology their students have assimilated.

The necessity for teaching practice is admitted by all and some perhaps would agree with Dr. Wilson that "extended and intensive school practice is the most important part of a teacher's training."¹

¹ Wilson, *Discussing Education*, p. 204.

But there is a wide divergence, in theory and practice, as to the length of the period and the best way of using it in the interests of the students, the staff and the children. What is the minimum length of practice teaching necessary to achieve the aims outlined earlier in the chapter? How should it be spaced? What forms should it take? In what types of schools? Where should it be conducted and how? And by whom should it be supervised? How should it be assessed? These are all debatable questions. Every training college has its own practical solution, and, until research is done on this matter, no final answer will be possible.

LENGTH OF TEACHING PRACTICE

The Ministry lays down a minimum of 12 weeks for all types of training institutions. No college gives less; many women's colleges, which place more emphasis on practical training, tend to give more. The Froebel Institute which has a three-year course gives 14 weeks' actual teaching practice plus 2 or 3 weeks, spread over the first two years, spent in observation, visits, projects and activity work.

Opinion about the 12 weeks' minimum varies. Some think it too short, a few too long. If the goal is to produce finished craftsmen then it is obviously too short; but if it is merely to teach the "tricks of the trade" it is too long. But if it aims, as it should, to equip the young apprentice with basic skills, to familiarize him with children and the school situation and to create right attitudes — then the period stipulated by the Ministry is, considering the present length of the whole training course, quite adequate. Once the course is made a three-year one, the length can be extended.

PRE-COLLEGE TEACHING EXPERIENCE

It has been suggested that the inadequacy of the present

12 weeks' teaching practice can be supplemented by making a certain amount of pre-college teaching experience an essential condition for entry into the training college, as it was in the pupil-teacher and student-teacher days. Such a period, it is agreed, will help students to test their vocation for teaching. It will be an index to selectors of their fitness, and provide a basis of experience to vitalize their theoretical studies. Some L.E.A's, influenced by these considerations, make previous teaching experience a *sine qua non* for the granting of bursaries and loans to intending teachers.

The case for pre-college experience seems strong. Yet most heads and lecturers in training colleges are opposed to it, if it takes the form of actual teaching, or is at the expense of the student's general education. The last year or two of Form VI-work are vital for the all-round growth and development of the students, and impoverished personalities will result if students are deprived of them. And what they get in return is very little. Unsupervised teaching practice, before entry into the training college, generally takes the form of a slavish imitation of more experienced teachers, or the picking up of a few techniques which, very often, have to be unlearnt at the training college. Hence students of this type frequently leave the training college half-trained, and only half-educated.

The truth of this has been borne out by three researches done in the last decade in the Sheffield and Aberystwyth University Training Departments.

Each of these was conducted with a large number of students over a period of time and their results on the whole confirm one another. Turnbull¹ found that students with previous teaching experience did much worse in their

¹ Turnbull, "The Influence of Pre-Teaching Experience", *B.J.E.P.*, Feb. 1934.

degree work and no better in educational theory and teaching practice. Pinsent¹ and Saer² on the whole corroborate this finding. All three agree that the type of teaching experience is more valuable than the amount of it and condemn any student-teaching for which it curtails the general education of the student at a period when it is most likely to bear fruit.

If further proof is needed, an analysis of the type of pre-college teaching experience actually given in some cases may help to reveal the danger and futility, and the harm done, by this idea badly applied. They were supplied to me by the Principal of the Rachel MacMillan Training College and concern nursery teachers in particular. In some L.E.A's, selected students who express a desire to be teachers are granted bursaries after their School Certificate (at about 16) and sent as assistants to nurseries or nursery classes attached to infant schools. During the following year, or year and a half, they observe and assist in the nursery all day, and, in addition, study for two evenings a week at a technical college for the Nursery Nurses' Diploma—after which, if they still desire, they enter a training college for nursery teachers to qualify as nursery teachers.

This seems an excellent scheme, in theory, for giving students that preliminary experience of children so essential to nursery teachers. Yet the Principal, who has had many years of experience, felt this system to do more harm than good for the following reasons:

1. The students were often sent to bad, inefficient, or poorly equipped and staffed nurseries and so learnt very

¹ Pinsent, "Pre-College Teaching Experience and Other Factors in the Teaching Success of Students", *B.J.E.P.*, June 1933.

² Saer, "A Further Investigation of Pre-College Experience and Other Factors in the Teaching Success of Students", *B.J.E.P.*, June 1939.

little, or the wrong things, from their observation and help in them.

2. They had no background of knowledge to make their experience valuable.

3. They picked up much of the jargon of Psychology from their lectures (derived from their actual work in the nursery) without understanding its application to children. This often prevented them from seeing the need of studying children and principles of education at college.

4. They were often given only the "donkey" work in the nursery and so spent all their time and energy attending to the physical needs of the children. Hence they had no time or opportunity to observe their internal and spiritual growth.

Because of this, the Principal added, the college had to spend the first few months helping such students to unlearn much of the ill-formed knowledge and the half-truths they had picked up, before they could begin their real training, — and beside, she added, their general education was sadly deficient. The evidence of most witnesses from similar colleges before the N.U.T. Commission supports her opinion.

Pre-teaching practice, then, especially if it is at the expense of the general education of students is to be discouraged, unless it is for a short period, at the end of the full secondary course, in a good school, and under careful supervision. But if we interpret "teaching practice" more widely to include "all types of pre-college experience of children", most training college experts would, I think, favour such an added qualification for all students entering college. The classroom situation is, after all, not the ideal one for observation of children, the tyro is often so concerned with discipline and problems of organization and teaching that he tends to lose sight of the children. Yet some

preliminary experience of children, especially in England with its diminishing families, is essential to enable a student really to test his vocation and to give him some basis for understanding what the Psychology lecturer is talking about.

Such experience should be gained, as far as possible, in natural settings where boys and girls are their natural selves, in Clubs, Scout and Guide Camps, Youth Service, Play-centres etc. In Detroit an essential condition for acceptance in a training college course is "100 hours' experience with children in clubs etc." and a certificate from the Club Leader of one's ability to "get along with children". The introduction of a similar condition might help to make the selection of students and the elimination of misfits, much easier. Bristol is considering introducing some such system. Most training class lecturers would, I am sure, welcome the idea and other Institutes of Education would do well to follow the example, soon to be set by Bristol in this matter.

THE PROBATIONARY YEAR

The proper use of this year, which we have discussed fully in another chapter, would do much to compensate for any defects and deficiencies in the practical training of teachers which remain after their 12 week period of practice teaching. This year should be considered, primarily, as one in which the student is helped and guided to master the fundamentals of his art — as a sort of journeyman period during which the young apprentice is helped to work out for himself, under guidance, the basis of his own individual method of teaching, a method that will not be static but will grow, develop and change through the years. The appointment of special supervisors, as the Middlessex L.E.A. have done, to assist probationers should help much to achieve this

end. It should be one of their main functions to help young teachers to develop proficiency in the art of teaching.

THE SPACING OF TEACHING PRACTICE

The debate between those who favour the "spread" system of two days a week throughout the major part of the course to be rounded off by a final block and those who favour periods of from 3 to 12 weeks at a time is not yet resolved. The chief argument in favour of the former is that a student can be made to realize more clearly the vital interaction, and mutual dependance, and difficulties resolved, before they get a hold on him or overwhelm him. Against this system it is argued that a student visiting a class only two days a week remains an "outsider", a sort of "guest lecturer", who can never really get to know the children or see the effect of his teaching. Against the sole use of "block" periods, especially if they are too long, is the fact that the student loses contact with college and is often inadequately supervised. These, however, are remediable defects, and opinion in England and America is unanimous that a period or periods of continuous practice are absolutely essential in the course of practice teaching if it is to be an adequate introduction to professional life. Only if a student is given complete responsibility for a class for a continuous period of time can he get to know the children he teaches and observe the effects of his teaching on them. During this period or periods the student should be treated as an accredited, accepted and responsible and inner member of the staff; teaching, not only isolated lessons, but a course of lessons, and sharing in all the varied activities of the school.

In spite of the advantage of the "continuous" period over

the "spread" system, there is much virtue in the latter, and it is the best form for some types of teaching practice, such as observation and initial participation. Most training colleges, realizing this, use a combination of the two methods and a recent meeting of the Association of London Education students felt this was the best system of arranging teaching practice.

BLOCK PRACTICE

While every college has one or more periods of continuous practice, they differ in their distribution, placement and length. No two-year college, as far as I know, gives the whole 12 weeks at one time; most training colleges favour 3 periods of 4 weeks or 4 periods of 3 weeks at a time. Variations of this plan were found at Gypsy Hill which has 3 periods, one of two weeks in the first term, one of 4 weeks in the second, and a final practice of 6 weeks in the fifth—and also at Strawberry Hill, which has only two periods, one of 5 weeks generally done in the long vacation between the first and second year, and one of 7 weeks in the fifth term.

None of the two-year colleges have adopted the Oxford Training Department's practice of sending the students for a whole term into a school: perhaps the reason of this is that since they are only able to fit in 12 weeks' practice in a crowded two-year course, they rightly believe that this should be distributed to allow the student time for growth and development, and to ensure that theory and practice develop side by side.

The MacNair Report suggesting a three-year course partly in order—

that the students may have more extensive and varied

experience of schools before they enter their year of teaching on probation and feeling that school practice under present conditions is too brief, confused in objective and somewhat artificial,¹

recommend there should be two distinguishable types of school practice for all students — practical training in schools for 12 weeks consisting of “comparatively discontinuous periods of teaching and observation in the schools, visits, minor investigations” as at present under the training college staff in co-operation with the schools and forming “an integral part of the course in education”; and, in addition, a term spent in continuous teaching practice as members of the staff of a school so that —

the student can experience what it is to become a teacher, that he is as far as possible a member of the School staff . . . developing relationships between himself and his pupils and colleagues and being responsible to the Headmaster for work he undertakes.²

This period, the Committee recommends, should be primarily under the direction and supervision of the school staff, though tutors should help, and discuss the experience with their students when they returned to college. Some tutors with whom I discussed this plan were against it as they did not like their students to lose contact with the college for so long, and they did not feel school staffs were, in all cases, ready or qualified to undertake the direction and supervision of the students. They also felt it was too much of a strain on the students so early in their career.

The Froebel Institute, however which has a scheme in operation like that suggested by the MacNair Committee, feels that the experience was worth the extra efforts made by

¹ *Teachers and Youth Leaders*, p. 77.

² *Ibid.*, p. 78.

students and staff. The education lecturers, however, insisted that college tutors must share in the supervision during this period, even if there were, as was not always the case, experienced heads or teachers at hand who were able, and willing, to share in this task.

Finally, touching the distribution of teaching practice is the question as to where, and when, to give the short periods of "continuous practice" which most two-year colleges use, especially the first and the last which are the most important. A few colleges (Gipsy Hill, which gives its first "block practice" at the end of the first term) plunge their students, as soon as possible, into school practice on the ground that they need experience of children as a basis for their theoretical studies. This, in our opinion, is not fair to the students as it subjects them to too great a strain too early, and moreover it is not generally of much value, for the students are so concerned with discipline and teaching that they are unable to really study the children closely and with profit. Contact with children, through observation and other more informal means, cannot be given too early, but actual teaching practice, of the continuous type at least, should be postponed till students have some understanding of children, some acquaintance with methods of teaching, and what is most important, some measure of confidence in themselves, for only then will it be fruitful. No ideal pattern is possible and teaching practice arrangements very often have to conform to the wishes of the schools and other extraneous circumstances. But perhaps if there were three periods of "block practice" the most useful spacing would be to have the first at the end of the 2nd term, the second at the beginning of the 4th term and the final practice at the end of the 5th term, leaving the students free in the last term to concentrate on their theoretical studies.

TYPES OF TEACHING PRACTICE

In the above discussion we have touched on a very important problem in connexion with teaching practice. Should such "practice" be confined to the practical training that is given actually within the walls of the classroom? This, in our opinion, would be a very limited and limiting interpretation of the term. "We would rather include under 'teaching practice' all those forms of practical training and experience through which the student teacher, both before entering college and in the training college itself, is helped in his attempt to master the fundamentals of his craft. Such is the interpretation given to the term by most two-year colleges; the practical training they give their students takes a variety of forms and includes observation, various forms of demonstration and discussion or criticism lessons, wide and varied opportunities for contact with and experience of children, not only in the schools but in more natural surroundings, intermittent teaching practice one day a week, and, finally, periods of continuous supervised teaching practice, varying in number from two to four, and, in length from two weeks to six weeks.

The Ministry of Education officially recognizes two types of teaching "practice" — planned visits of observation and actual teaching, stipulating that not more than one week of the former may count towards the 12 weeks. This is wholly inadequate when we consider the wide variety of experiences colleges often include under the word "observation" and its obvious advantage and fortunately most colleges include much more. We shall now survey briefly a few of the varied types of observation and experience of children which most training colleges make an important part of the practical training given to their students.

VISITS TO ALL TYPES OF SCHOOLS

In all the training colleges I visited, this practice is adopted. Groups of students under a tutor or lecturer make informal visits to all types of schools, — nursery, infant, junior, secondary, technical, modern and grammar and special schools for the physically and psychologically maladjusted. The visit is generally preceded by a short talk setting out the peculiar features of the school in question so that the students know what to look for, and followed by discussion, to consolidate observations. Students are generally received by the head who outlines the aims and special characteristics of the school and have opportunities to talk to the staff. Such visits, if carefully planned, achieve many things. They give the student "a bird's eye view" of the system as a whole and of the place of their school in it; they guide the student in the choice of school, and enable him to sympathize with the ideals of other types of schools. Some colleges also arrange similar visits to child guidance clinics, juvenile courts, remand homes etc. — they are all convinced of the value of such visits but deplore the lack of time which limits what they can do in this sphere.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR CONTACT WITH CHILDREN OUTSIDE SCHOOL

The main aim of teaching practice, said a lecturer to me, is not to learn how to teach but to give the students direct and intimate contact with children. We may not agree but we realize how important it is for a teacher to understand and like children if he is to establish a proper relationship with them in school. It is often extremely difficult for a teacher, except in a nursery or infant school where the atmosphere is freer and more informal, to get to know, under-

stand and develop a liking for children in the somewhat strained and artificial atmosphere of the classroom, especially when he is on school practice. Hence most training colleges are endeavouring to provide as wide and varied opportunities as possible for contacts between their students and children outside school. In some colleges these activities are voluntary, in others they are a part of the practical training of students and so organized that all students can take part in them. Education lecturers with whom I have discussed this matter are convinced of the value of such informal contacts with children, but regret that they have little time to promote them.

In spite of the pressure of work, most training colleges do provide a variety of opportunities for direct contact between students and children in a variety of situations.

This whole field has been admirably surveyed by Miss Aiken in her thesis, "Provision of Opportunities for Contact between Student-Teachers and Children", 1947-48, where she states that such contacts are basic to a true understanding of children which every teacher must have to succeed in his job. Miss Aiken found training colleges in England fully alive to the value of such first-hand experience of children in the home, on the streets, in play centres, youth clubs and other social services, which, she remarks, was playing an increasingly important part in the practical training of teachers. My own experience bears this out. Such contacts are invaluable to supplement classroom contact provided their true *raison d'être* is kept in mind — to give students a fuller knowledge and understanding of the children they are to teach.

PRACTICE TEACHING

The groundwork for this having been laid by A & B, actual teaching may begin. This, properly handled, is the

most valuable but the most exacting part of the teacher's preparation. To be of most benefit, practice teaching must be a gradual and graded induction in which a student progresses from guided observation of children, schools and skilled teachers to the point when he himself assumes full responsibility for the class. It should include the following stages:—(a) Observation and experience of children in schools of all types of situations. (b) Observation of demonstration lessons given by skilled teachers or college lecturers. These must not be regarded as models to be slavishly copied but as specimens for analysis and dissection. It is in these lessons that new methods can be demonstrated and experimented with under conditions which are to a certain extent under control. The old "Criticism Lesson" has been rightly modified into the "Discussion Lesson" which is more a matter for experiment and co-operation than performance before an audience. Both these types of lessons to be of use should be carefully directed, have clear objectives, definite procedures and closely integrated with theory. (c) Actual supervised teaching gradually increasing in amount and responsibility. Here the "spread" system will prove of value. (d) A continuous period of more or less unsupervised practice, the amount of supervision varying with the individual means of students.

All these stages must be carefully co-ordinated, integrated and guided, and, at all stages, theory and practice must be welded together. Most of the training colleges I visited, observe such a system with variations.

A final word must stress the need for variety not only in the forms which teaching practice takes, but also the schools in which it is given. Students, whether specializing in nursery, infant, junior or secondary work, must have opportunities to teach for short periods in other types of

schools, not only to guide their final choice of school but to make them realize the essential unity and continuity of the educational process and the unique difficulties of each stage. Such an experience will do more to create one profession than loads of propaganda.

DEMONSTRATION V—PRACTICE SCHOOLS

To be of most value, teaching practice should take place, as far as possible, under actual conditions existing in the school. Yet owing to the inevitable time lag between the discovery of new methods and their acceptance by the schools (perhaps a blessing in disguise), their conservatism, lack of equipment and of adequate conditions for experiment and progress, the adoption of this desirable principle would reduce the value of much teaching practice and retard experiment and progress. Hence while the ordinary schools should, for the most part, be used for teaching practice, there is need for special demonstration, experimental or model schools to pioneer new methods and pave the way for a more scientific method of training teachers. A few training colleges in England possess such schools and make good use of them; others use specially selected and co-operative local schools for demonstration and experiment.

Where demonstration schools exist they are, and should be, specially staffed and equipped, and under the immediate control of the principal of the training college. In them students observe demonstrations of the most approved and tested methods of teaching and discipline, by experienced teachers, and try to emulate them. These schools also serve as laboratories where new methods can be tried out and shown to work in practice by their training college lecturers, and where students can, under guidance, experiment with these new methods themselves. Such schools answer the

eternal complaint of training college lecturers of the lack of suitable schools for demonstration schools and are valuable.

But their limitations and drawbacks must be kept in mind. There is a danger that the demonstration school may become a mere reflection of the lecturers' pet theories and methods, or that the children may be used as "guinea pigs" for experiment. Its limitation must also be realized — the demonstration school may be used as a practice school, but must not be the *only* practice school, for it is, after all, an artificially created environment and a somewhat ideal one. Hence while demonstration schools have their place in a system of training and are necessary for developing psychology, yet teaching practice must be, for the most part, under normal everyday conditions in ordinary state or private schools.

All training colleges in England have since 1902 adopted the practice of using the state schools as their main practising schools. The organization and placing of students in suitable schools is a complex and difficult task. Training colleges in large towns or in urban areas find it fairly easy to place their students in schools in the neighbourhood (even though they are not always suitable), but rural training colleges have often to send their students far afield which makes the supervisors' task doubly difficult. This almost universal practice of using ordinary schools for teaching practice is to be commended, provided as much care as possible is taken to place students in suitable schools with sympathetic colleagues and under an understanding head. This raises a very important issue in the realm of school practice.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE TRAINING COLLEGE AND THE PRACTICE SCHOOLS

It seems almost superfluous to stress that a proper adjustment and relationship is essential between the training college and the practice schools if teaching practice is to fully achieve its ends. What is the nature of this relationship to be and who is to be responsible for the supervision, guidance and conduct of the student-teacher at school? All colleges admit that internal organization and discipline of the school is the affair of the head but there is a difference of opinion on the responsibility he should be given for the supervision and guidance of the students during practice teaching. Some say this is wholly the responsibility of the head of the school and his staff, others, that it is the sole concern of the tutors and lecturers of the training colleges. Both are extremist views. The former would be valuable if the teachers were all "master craftsmen" teaching the apprentices their job. But, unfortunately, good teachers are not common enough and the best would not be able to explain what made them good teachers. Besides, most teachers tend to get into a rut and out of touch with new methods and ideas, and, in any case, teaching is both an art and a craft. The elements of the latter may be learnt but the former must be developed by the individual for himself. Training college tutors and lecturers too, cannot be wholly and solely responsible for practical reasons, because they are often out of contact with the schools and the day-to-day business of teaching.

SUPERVISION OF TEACHING PRACTICE

Experts are agreed that the value of teaching practice depends, in large measure, on the nature and extent of the

supervision. In order that the student may benefit from this exacting ordeal he must be guided and helped till he achieves the confidence and skill necessary to begin his job. This vitally important task of supervision must be shared by the college supervisor and the head and the expert teacher on the spot under whose wing the student-teacher is placed. The MacNair Committee recommends that the primary responsibility for supervision during the school practice period should rest with the college tutor, and during the period of continuous school practice with the head and teacher of the practising school. We personally believe, as a result of conversations with lecturers in training colleges, that the primary responsibility for supervision during both periods must be with the college tutor as he or she is best qualified to undertake this responsibility. But a wise tutor will delegate much of this responsibility to heads and teachers on the spot when they are ready and able to shoulder it. Supervision, then, must be a joint and equal partnership between college and school staffs. This partnership must be cemented by two-way visits of training college lecturers to the schools and of the heads and staff of schools to the colleges; and conferences should be held between the two parties on the problems of teaching practice whenever necessary. This would do much to dissipate the mutual suspicion, and sometimes mutual contempt, that the two parties have for each other, which often negatives much of the value of school practice. Lance Jones complains . . .

Conservatism and critical attitude maintained by some heads and teachers is a very real hindrance to young students engendering lack of confidence both in themselves and in the College staff and tending to quench at the outset of their career that spirit of adventure and enquiry which is so essential if they are to make effective leaders of the young.

This was written in 1931 — since then much progress has been made towards a happier and healthier relationship between training college lecturers and tutors and the heads and staff of practising schools; and training college lecturers are the first to acknowledge how readily and effectively many heads and teachers assist the young students with help and guidance. Evidence also exists, however, that this attitude and practice is not universal, and the old antagonism is often replaced by an indifference which is even more chilling and enervating than open hostility. The problem, touching as it does the delicate and difficult field of personal relationships, is not an easy one to resolve. In order that there might be satisfactory adjustment and harmony, the duties and responsibilities of each partner in the triumvirate of tutor, head and teacher should be quite clear, to prevent overlapping of functions and possible conflict.

The tutor, in our opinion, is primarily and ultimately responsible for the work and teaching supervision of the student. The head is "boss" in all matters pertaining to school organization and discipline, and should in addition, be ready to help in guiding and advising the young student. Finally, there is the teacher under whose watchful eye the student conducts his day-to-day work. A much debated question here is whether the teacher shall remain in the class all the time while the student is teaching. On this tricky matter the Institute of Education "Notes on School Practice" has something enlightening to say:

Its answer depends on the personality and maturity of the student and upon his relationship with the class. In general the aim of the teacher might be to leave the student with his class for some lessons as soon as possible, but to continue to visit him throughout the lesson in order to observe his progress and to be able to offer advice either in class management or

the presentation of material as it is essential that the students should be advised very clearly as to what powers of discipline they may exercise.¹

Tutor, head and teacher then must join hands in a professional collegueship to help the young beginner, to plan, and organize and carry out his practice teaching in such a way that it may be of maximum benefit to him. The actual value of their supervision and how they exercise it must be left to individuals to determine. As a guiding rule, it can only be laid down that criticism should be at a minimum, that their handling of the students should be sympathetic, and their advice as constructive as possible and such as to aid the student in becoming a better teacher.

In order to do this their criticism must be "forward looking," and they should encourage the student to be self-critical so that finally he will be in a position to evaluate his own work and plan for the future in the light of his past mistakes.

The question as to who should carry out the supervision in the training college itself is by no means easy to answer, and, even where an answer is given, it is not easy, under present conditions of staffing and organization in training colleges, to enforce it. The general custom is for all students, but, in addition each is also assigned an individual tutor who is chiefly responsible for the supervision of the students' practice teaching and general work. In addition to this, subject specialists and experts in P.T. or Art often visit the students to observe the teaching of their special subjects plus which the student has to suffer the more or less continuous presence of the class teacher and an occasional visit of the head. As a plan is seldom drawn up beforehand to

¹ *Notes on School Practice*, Institute of Education, p. 4.

regulate these visitations, cases have been reported when students, in addition to visits by the education lecturer and general tutor, have been visited by two or three specialists all in one day; this is obviously a form of torture which not even an experienced teacher could stand, and there is some truth in the criticism made by one of Miss Margaret Phillips' students that during teaching practice students were "oversupervised and insufficiently responsible and hence did not take their place in the real life of the school"—or of another, that it was "too sheltered and conducted under unreal conditions." Supervision, especially in the beginning, is essential for success and the students cannot have too much of the right type of help and advice. But there should come a time, varying with the individual, when the students are left alone with a class to rise or sink by themselves. Such an experience is a vital part of their practical training.

THE ASSESSMENT OF TEACHING PRACTICE

The "Final Teaching Mark" is one of the most important qualifications of an intending teacher and plays a major part in his later career. Students, lecturers, L.E.A's and even the Ministry whose inspectors, till recently, had the right and responsibility of "vetting" teaching marks attach great importance to it. This mark is generally a composite opinion of the student's tutor, the education lecturer and all others who have come into contact with the student's work. A nine-point scale is used—A, B, B-, C, C-, D and E; but as A and E are seldom used, it is for all practical purposes a seven-point scale. Its precise nature is not easy to define but Pinsent attempts to do so as follows:

It includes personality traits (charm of manner, force of personality, sympathy with children, tact, quickness in the uptake); mental traits (clearness of thinking and expression,

system, alertness of mind, power of self-criticism), and finally the command of the technique of teaching and class management.¹

Such an overall estimate embodied in a single mark is bound to be subjective and it has been criticized on this account by Prof. Godfrey Thompson. Catell affirms that discrepancies are often found in the different estimates of heads, H.M.I., lecturers etc. and states there is need for "a clear statement of values which the teaching profession as a whole assigns to the various personal qualities."² He suggests the rating scale which will make assessments more accurate.

Training college lecturers and H.M.I. dispute Catell's view, and their evidence seems to indicate that the final teaching mark, as arrived at by a pooling of several independent opinions, is on the whole an accurate statement of the teacher's ability at the time of his final school practice.

Another criticism of the teaching mark is that it is often regarded as final and good for all time or given an undue prominence when appointments are being made. The tendency of L.E.A's to appoint only A and E teachers is criticized by the N.U.T. Report:

It elevates the teaching mark into a position of importance in the career of the teacher which is out of all proportion to its real value, for the teaching mark can only take into account certain measurable factors in success and must leave out of account hidden and imponderable factors which may be of even greater value in the making of the successful teacher. It is not a scientific method of choice and is based on an entire misconception of the college teaching mark. Authorities do not appear to have realized that the college mark is an average mark and that students who have earned it may on that basis

¹ Pinsent, "Pre-College Experience and Other Factors in the Teaching Success of Students", *B.J.E.F.*, June 1933, p. 56.

² Catell, "Assessment of Teaching Ability", *B.J.E.P.*, 1932.

and with classroom practice develop into extremely valuable members of the profession.¹

This argument seems unanswerable, yet recent investigation by Lawton seems to indicate that the college mark is a fairly safe guide not only to present but also to future ability. Lawton states that it is "a reasonably reliable indication of the type of teacher the student will ultimately become."² Tudhope confirmed his finding as a result of a comprehensive experiment in which 96 teachers, three years after leaving college, were reassessed by H.M.I. The correlation of their estimates was 81 on the basis of which Tudhope feels justified in stating that "the teaching mark can predict with a high degree of reliability the ultimate success, or non-success of the teacher", adding:

there are few, if any, indications that the wider opportunities which classroom practice has brought, and the increased knowledge of men and affairs, have revealed unsuspected gifts of personality. Rather does it seem that the teacher while a student at college while on final school practice has revealed to the experienced eye of his supervisor almost the whole range of his personal qualities so that the supervisor is able not merely to estimate the present teaching ability of the student but also to take into account in determining the final teaching mark the presumed effects of additional experience and additional practice.³

These findings contradict the N.U.T. statement at many points; yet its warning remains on the whole worthy of consideration. The final teaching mark must never be a labelling of students for all time, or a barrier to future advancement. It must be continually revised by visiting H.M.I., and promotions made on present ability and professional growth, not on a teaching mark awarded when the student was leaving college.

¹ N.U.T. Report, *The Training of Teachers*, p. 215.

² Lawton, "Factors Useful in Choosing Teachers", *B.J.E.P.*

³ Tudhope, "Study of the Final Teaching Mark as a Criterion of Future Success in the Teaching Profession", *B.J.E.P.*

CHAPTER VIII

THE PERSONAL EDUCATION OF THE TEACHER

TEACHERS in the past were trained not educated. Hence, with few exceptions, they tended to identify education with "instruction" and trained the children entrusted to their care instead of bringing them up as whole human beings and developing in them, what Sir John Adams calls, "a many-sided personality". They could do little else, for only a truly educated person is capable of developing the whole personality of his charges.

The teacher must above all be a whole human being with every part of his personality exercised by a varied experience among men and in good working order; not a narrow specialist with a one-track mind and emotions frustrated and sympathies limited by the unnatural segregation of his lot and with no knowledge of his fellow men outside the walls of his school. For work in our schools we must train not teachers but the right sort of human being, the right sort of teacher will follow.¹

When we consider the youth, immaturity, limited social contacts and poor cultural background of many training college students, especially among the women, we will at once realize the necessity of regarding teacher education from the wider standpoint of the education of the teacher as a person. Most students, according to Prof. Brian Stanley and other training college principals with whom we have talked, come from the working and lower middle classes with a narrow social and cultural background. They arrive at the training college after successfully jumping several examination hurdles "played out, cramped, tense, unresilient... and what is worse their immaturity is often a

¹ Jacks, *Total Education*, p. 26.

premature maturity not a potentiality of further sustained development.”¹

Physically and mentally these students are, to quote Miss Margaret Phillips, “like squeezed oranges”, while psychologically they are at a time of transition. Great change and development will take place during their two years at college which therefore must help them to make these changes with the minimum of strain and stress and in as normal and healthy a manner as possible. It is interesting and instructive to know some of the many changes and adjustments, the most important of which may be summed up under the following heads :

1. Students must be helped to grow from girlhood and boyhood to womanhood and manhood, to achieve intellectual maturity, moral integrity, and emotional stability;

2. They must be helped to grow from a child's conception of education and the function of a teacher to that of an adult;

3. They must grow from insecurity to that self-confidence which will set their feet firmly on the path to personal and professional maturity;

4. They must be weaned from an interest in subjects and skills for their own sake into an interest in children, for unless they can “become like little children” even for a while, they will never become real educators however successfully they may impart knowledge;

5. Every effort must be made to develop their immature personalities by providing them with a wide range of enriching experiences and worthwhile activities. “Education through Experience” will never be widely practised in

¹ B. Stanley, “Training of Teachers”, *Education in Britain Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow*, p. 68.

schools till training college students experience an understanding of the value of such an education themselves;

6. Last and most important of all, they must be guided and helped to the attainment of true culture in Ortega Y. Gasset's sense of the word, "a coherent, complete, and vital system of ideas of the world and of man . . . a repertory of convictions that become the effective guide of his existence."

In short, students must be helped to grow to adult status and responsibility, to formulate a satisfactory and satisfying philosophy of life and education, to develop balanced and many-sided personalities, to learn what André Maurois calls the "art of living", before they can be entrusted with the delicate task of helping children to "grow up and live". This ideal — and surely it is an ideal as essential and practical as it is noble — is put before all training colleges by the far-sighted authors of the MacNair Report:

We must ensure that those who intend to be teachers have the chance to enjoy a period of education and training which, above all else, will encourage them to live a full life themselves, so that they may contribute to the young something which arises as much from a varied personal experience as from professional studies.¹

To achieve this *summum bonum* training colleges must aim, in Prof. Jack's phrase, at the total education of the student, at the co-education of body, mind and spirit through all the studies, training activities and experiences it provides.

The whole character and personality of the teacher are involved in his impact upon children. Everything that can contribute is a vital part of his education and must be considered when planning the curriculum. Hence the old diachotomy and conflict between the general and professional

¹ *Teachers and Youth Leaders*, p. 7.

aspects of his education must be forgotten in this larger unity. Differences must be only those of emphasis.

His general education should be "a course of study and activity that will result in his achieving a balanced development of mind and body" (MacNair Committee) that will not only equip him with the knowledge he needs to teach but make him a truly cultured person. Such an emphasis in no way conflicts with the aim of the professional part of his training, for everything that contributes to the cultural development of the teacher is an essential part of his education, and can neither be omitted nor ignored.¹ Similarly the professional education of teachers-to-be must not only aim at giving them the necessary technical preparation for a difficult and specialized job, but some insight into the principles and ideals underlying it. Such an education will not only contribute to the training of the teacher but also to the making of the man.²

To produce the right type of human being and the right sort of teacher, this is the goal all training colleges must set before themselves. We have already discussed in detail how the general and professional elements in the teacher's preparation need to be adapted, modified, and in some cases reorientated, both in content and method, to achieve this end more completely. The way for such a reorientation and readaptation of the entire training college course has

¹ "The best way to ensure the right education of children is to give them cultivated teachers. Any study leading to the development of the student however intensive or intellectual it may be has a direct and definite contribution to make and has therefore a professional value." Memorandum of T.C.A. & C.O.P., *The Training of Teachers*, p. 28.

² "It would be a profound mistake to regard professional studies as concerned only with the student's professional equipment in the narrow sense. Well-planned education of the student, they are part of the process of producing educated men and women for our schools." *Teachers and Youth Leaders*, p. 68.

been prepared by the Cambridge Local Syndicate in their latest curriculum regulations. The course is divided into three broad sections, but the close and intimate relationship between the three is continually emphasized.

Section I consists of courses based on the curriculum of primary and secondary modern schools. The number and types of courses differ from college to college. The student's choice in this section is generally limited because no training college can provide all possible courses. The context of such courses consists of a "professionalized" study of the major subjects of the primary and secondary school curriculum, with special reference to the age group the student intends to teach; or of a review and re-learning of the subject matter learnt at school in these subjects, through new studies and experiences such as social studies and environmental surveys which necessitate a new approach to, and integration of, familiar material from books and life.

Section II consists of the usual "professional" subjects.

Section III consists of courses designed specifically and principally to foster the personal development of the student through the pursuit of one of a large number of special subjects, carried as far as a student can take it. Full freedom is given here to the student in the choice of his special interests, and the extent to which he pursues them.

The interpretation of this liberal and flexible curriculum in two of the affiliated colleges of the syndicate will help to make clear both the variety of approach possible, and how much better this new approach can promote the total education of the student as an individual and as a teacher than the old curriculum and training which made a more or less sharp distinction between the general education and professional training of the teacher, and often failed to unify

and extend these, and other aspects, of a teacher's preparation to bring about his development as a person.

College A devotes the whole of the first year to the professional courses and to professionalized study of the subjects of the primary and secondary curriculum — English, Divinity, Mathematics, History, Geography, General Science, Horticulture, Music, Art, and Craft. The barrier between the professional and general education of the teacher is thus partly broken down, for the students approach the latter through their knowledge of the theory and methods of education acquired in the former. The students' vision is broadened, theory and methods become more real and vital and the knowledge acquired at school, reviewed with half an eye on its most effective use assumes a new significance and utility. In the second year, students drop most of the professionalized courses and concentrate on their chosen special subject. Their study of the professional subjects continues through this year. The relation between the two is always kept in mind. This closer integration of the two main, and often conflicting, elements in the teacher preparation does not, however, aim merely to use the limited time more economically and effectively to produce a more efficient and better prepared teacher, (though it certainly does so) but the wider aim of producing a better person is not lost sight of, and both the general and professional parts of the course are used also to promote the personal education of the teacher.

College A's course is satisfactory on the whole but there still lingers in it (in a new guise) the idea that a teacher must know enough of, and how to teach, all the subjects in the curriculum of the elementary schools.

College B (also under the Cambridge Joint Board) has broken away to a greater extent from the traditional idea

that students must know something about all the subjects they may be called upon to teach. Instead it seeks to provide its students with a fresh approach to traditional fields of learning and experience, through practical and aesthetic experiences and first-hand explorations of the social and physical environment.

The professional studies are broadly the same at College A and other training colleges, and continue through two years. But all students for their general education take only four general courses in Divinity, Art and Craft, Music and Social Studies — plus one special interest. Over-pressure is avoided, and time for leisure and meditation provided by “staggering” the courses. Some are taken for two terms and then dropped; Divinity continues throughout the year; and attention is fixed on “special interest” during the last four terms.

An interesting feature of the Cambridge Syndicate Regulations is that “education” may be pursued as a “special interest” thus acknowledging that it has not only a professional but also a cultural value. Another barrier between the general and professional subjects has thus been broken down. We have already seen that English belongs equally to the professional and general groups: an even closer link is provided by “Social Studies” which attempt to give students some understanding of the environment of the child, and the extra-school influences that help to mould him, and is thus as much professional as general. Even the “special interest” has a professional value, for it helps to develop the teacher as a human being, and, as such, contributes to his value as a teacher.

Still another college has moved a step further towards removing the distinction between the professional and general sides of the work. Every students’ course includes:

1. *Child study*, including psychology, hygiene and the knowledge of what a State does for the child. Twenty-five attendances are made at clinics etc. and are recognized as the equivalent of a fortnight's school practice.

2. *One special study* — the equivalent of the old Advanced Course. The subject is studied for its own sake. The students are grouped according to their choice of special study, and the lecturer in that subject is tutor to the group and supervises their practice teaching.

3. *Study of the school curriculum*:

(a) Language: spoken and written, Numbers, Handi-work and Physical Training.

(b) Centres of Interest.

(c) Observation, including Science.

(d) Aesthetic Subjects: Poetry, Dancing, Art and Music.

This probably marks the extreme limit of the tendency to merge into one the general and professional sides of the teacher's preparation, a tendency that is exerting a powerful influence over training colleges all over England. The theory and trend of thought underlying this tendency is, as we have pointed out more than once, implicit and explicit in the MacNair Report which marks a complete revolution in the history and evolution of the training college system in England. This theory was well summed up by one of the witnesses who gave evidence before the Committee of the T.C.A. and C.O.P. who stated:

The teacher is a human being whose lifework is education. Therefore in the work of preparing for teaching there is no need for a conscious separation of the process of developing himself as a human being and the process of developing his value as a teacher. There is no real opposition between a professional and an academic course or viewpoint if the aim is to train teachers. There is merely a difference from time

to time in the degree of emphasis. Transition is natural from one aspect to the other.

We are in complete agreement with this view and were glad to find that the line of demarcation between these two equally important aspects of a teacher's total education is growing fainter and fainter in training colleges in England, for they cannot be kept apart in more or less watertight compartments without doing violence to both. If they are properly handled, balanced and integrated on the lines being experimented with above, and if the common element underlying them — the personal education of the teacher — is kept clearly and consciously in view, the gap between the training and education of the teacher will soon be bridged, and the training colleges will turn out not trained instructors but trained educators, or educated teachers, who will be truly cultured men and women with complete and many-sided personalities.

There remains one important element still to be considered in the total education of the student — his corporate life and activity as a member of the college community.

CORPORATE LIFE AND ACTIVITY

No single factor has a more vital effect upon the atmosphere and tone of a college than the conditions under which the students live and work. Every training college is not only a "knowledge shop" or a "method factory" but a community of teachers and students which through the knowledge, activities and experience it provides helps them to develop into good human beings and good teachers. Among these formative experiences the corporate life and activity "that experience of fellowship, and bracing contact and comradeship" play a vital role. It is not merely a

desirable adjunct but an indispensable part of the teacher's education, and must be planned and integrated with the "Studies" to achieve its full value. The training college is not merely a preparation for teaching and living but a part of life; hence it must be a happy, rich experience of group living with wide and varied social and recreational facilities.

From their inception most two-year training colleges have been residential institutions of the Oxbridge Collegiate type, and have rightly regarded the education and character provided by their community life as an essential feature of their training. In this respect two-year colleges have a great advantage over most university training departments, for they insist that their students live either at the college itself, or in recognized hostels in convenient proximity to it. Provided the community life they afford is such as to help and not hinder the students' education, there is little doubt residence does much to promote the personal growth of the students. To be thrown together with fellow students of different regions, homes, points of view, interests, in a community in which the whole range of knowledge is being studied, and in intimate association with those whose speciality differs from his own, is an indispensable part of the growth, and a peculiarly enriching experience. It affords opportunities for the stimulating interplay of mind on mind, for the formation of friendships, and for learning the indispensable art of understanding and living with others of an outlook and temperament different from his own. Indeed, we feel so strongly that the full value of a training college education cannot be extracted unless a student shares such a community life that we are tempted to say what the U.G.C. in 1935 said about a university "a non-residential training college is not a training college."

But the community life, whether in hostels or halls or in the training college itself, is not by itself alone a panacea for all the ills which a training college education is heir to. Residential life to be truly educative must fulfil certain conditions, material and spiritual. The buildings or hostels must be pleasing to the eye, modern, hygienic, well equipped and must not only provide separate "study-bedrooms" for the students but should also contain adequate library and common room facilities so that students can entertain one another and their friends. Generous accommodation must also be provided for the Warden and for such members of staff who are resident, and if residential life is to yield its full value we feel some members of the staff should be resident, so that tutors and students can live together and share common experiences and through the interaction of the more and the less mature and experienced, both may benefit.

"Spiritually the hostel (or hall or college) must be a real community diffusing a distinctive atmosphere which is normally and intellectually stimulating," and provide wide and varied facilities for social living. Clubs and societies of all types should be encouraged. To break down the isolation of students from students preparing for other vocations and the segregation of the sexes (for most two-year-colleges are single-sex institutions) men's and women's hostels could be placed near each other and near other university hostels so that the sexes can mix freely and the training college students can widen their sphere of social and intellectual contacts. The adult character of students must be recognized by giving them as much freedom as possible not only in their choice of studies but in the management of their personal lives and the atmosphere not only in the training college but in its hostels must

be that of the university and not of the secondary school. Students can only be trained to independence and responsibility by shouldering these for themselves; hence control of student affairs or the social and recreational affairs should be handed over to representative elected student unions with clearly defined powers and functions and co-operation with the college authorities encouraged by staff-student committees. In short the training college must not only teach them in theory but exemplify in practice the working of an active, vital, rich and dynamic community where the students mature by co-operative living in vital contact with others. Hence the stress must be not only on individual development but on the college community as a whole and the group organizations and human contacts that can mould a mere agglomeration of individuals into an organic social entity in which alone the individual personality can achieve its fullest development. A "rounded" personality cannot be developed in isolation; it develops only when there is free interplay with other personalities in a community.

Our education consists of contacts with things and persons but contacts with persons are the most significant, for persons grow above all through personal relations so that the most potent instruments of education are groups of people.¹

Hence while the development of the whole personality is the goal, associated living is the best means of achieving it.

Most two-year colleges today provide a suitable *milieu* and conditions for fruitful associated living such as we have described above. Students also are left comparatively free to select whichever elements from the comparatively rich provisions and opportunities they feel will promote their

¹ M. Reeves, *Growing up in a Modern Society*, p. 10.

personal development best. The rigid discipline and regimentation of students' personal and professional lives under Kaye-Shuttleworth has been replaced in most training colleges by a freer, more stimulating and humane atmosphere in which students, for the most part organize and manage their own lives and affairs. This is absolutely vital, for unless students learn to rule their own lives and thus grow to maturity they will remain retarded adolescents and hence in no position to help children to grow up and mature. In addition to the material and spiritual conditions which training colleges must provide (and most do provide) if their community life is to be successful, a very important added feature of such community life, in the denominational colleges especially, is the opportunity given their students to share in communal worship in the college chapel. This forms them for college life and activity with a wider meaning and purpose. Undenominational colleges also provide facilities for religious worship and encourage their students to avail themselves of them but the wide variety of beliefs among the students prevents religion from occupying a central place in their scheme of training as in the former.

Finally, it is almost superfluous to say and yet it needs emphasizing that students, if they are to profit from their common life and experience, must have an abundance of leisure and time in which "to mature by living instead of surviving by hurrying." It is no use providing the facilities and opportunities for a wide and many-sided growth of students who are so overburdened by pressure of work that they have no time or leisure to use and profit from them. Prof. Lilian Penson in a recent speech on the training of nurses pleaded that they be given "enough time for the element of folly, independence, initiative and enjoying themselves in their own way" which she considered a vital part of their educative

process and she pleaded further that they be given opportunities for adequate contacts in a normal life with normal human beings. The same plea can be made with even greater force in the case of teachers to be. Time and opportunity must be created in the education of teachers for these vital elements and it is hoped that when the training college course is extended to three years both will be provided freely, for only then will the students be able to reap the full benefits of their common life, the advantages of which have been clearly set forth by Sir Walter Moberley in his statement that

for the future administrator or statesman or leader and indeed for the future citizen the setting in which he lives and the quality of the common life in which he takes part determine his mental development as much as the knowledge he acquires.¹

For the teacher such a common life also complements and enriches his studies, promoting not only his mental development but also his physical, emotional and spiritual growth producing a truly educated person who is the right sort of human being and the right sort of teacher: the type of teacher Marjorie Reeves has in mind:

If we ask ourselves what kind of persons we want as teachers of our children, the answer must surely be: normal adults, alive in interest and mature in development, enjoying wide experience and living a full rounded life.

Such teachers are not, as a rule, born; nor can they be made by wishful thinking, or by a training institution regarded as a mere collection of classes conducted on a lecture note-taking system; or one which divided its studies and activities into sharply defined compartments. They can only be produced by training colleges which are conceived as:

¹ Moberley, *The Crisis in the Universities*, p. 221.

a formative community life, governed by high social ideals, and constituted by corporate activities whose character is not wholly imposed by those in authority but is partly the expression of forces in the nature of the students themselves... Though living in such an environment the student should, of course, acquire the scholarship, professional knowledge and skills he needs; but it should above all be an environment in which he will acquire, as lasting qualities of personality, the ideals, standards, attitudes, enthusiasm and faith that will determine the vitality of his educational work.¹

In short only a training college deliberately planned in broad outlines and in minute details on the lines we have endeavoured to define in the last six chapters can hope to set students' footsteps on the path to becoming ideal men and ideal teachers, in so far as perfection is attainable in this imperfect world.

¹ Scottish Council of Education, *Training of Teachers*, p. 9.

CHAPTER IX

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION AND TESTING IN THE TRAINING COLLEGES

THE most perfect course on paper will be fruitless if it is handled in the wrong way. On the quality of the staff and the methods they use depend the life and vitality of both the general and professional syllabuses. Only a well-qualified staff and creative methods can clothe their bare bones with flesh and blood; indeed, the effectiveness with which the training college attains its aim depends more on the methods used than on the content of the various subjects studied. The methods of instruction used in the training colleges are also of vital importance for two other reasons:

1. They provide the key to the solution of the problem of the overcrowded curriculum. It is not the content of the courses or the amount taught that matters in a training college, but the quality of the work done and this depends not only on the nature of the doer and the way in which it is done — "How" is as important as, if not more important than, "What". The aim must be to foster the personal development and to train the minds of the students not to cram them with "inert knowledge".

2. The staff, whether they like it or not, are consciously or unconsciously accepted as models by many of their students. Hence, if their methods are inefficient and slipshod, they will harm not only their students but the children those students teach.

There has been much progress in the development of new and more vital methods of instruction in the training colleges as the emphasis has moved from the instruction and training of students to their education. In 1929 Sandiford found "the predominant method of instruction . . . is by

means of the lecture"; students had "crammed lecture notes", which they half digested and reproduced faithfully in the examinations. Indeed when the London Day Training College was built it consisted only of a large lecture theatre and a number of small rooms for the professors and administrative staff.

There is now in most training colleges much less emphasis on the formal lecture, which is now generally modified into the "lecture-discussion". This is all to the good, for:

to try and produce educational pioneers or even good teachers by means of crammed lecture notes is a futility we have tolerated too long. The child, whose liberty of development is so carefully respected in the pupil's note-book and essays often has little relation with the pupil he afterwards teaches in a class.¹

Lecturers too are much less didactic than formerly; most of them aim at stimulating individual thinking, at splitting open controversial questions and revealing the different aspects of a question rather than at offering cut and dried solutions to educational problems, or:

transferring a certain amount of material from their notebooks to those of the students without it passing either through the minds of the lecturer or that of the student.²

A good lecture must have a follow-on and rouse questions in the listeners' minds that need to be cleared up, or explored further through discussion. Hence most lecturers not only allow time for discussion at the end but make use of discussion groups or seminars.

¹ Report of the Advisory Council of Education in Scotland, *Training of Teachers*, p. 13.

² *Ibid.* p. 15.

DISCUSSION GROUPS OR SEMINARS

These were first used in the "advanced" subjects, but they have now been extended to the professional subjects and are probably of most vital use in the exploration of the Philosophy and Psychology courses. From the informal discussion, a new vital method of discussion has been developed — a group working in the subject engages in a joint discussion — the stress being on the education of the students by themselves and by their fellows. The discussion-technique is not a novel idea — it is merely a modern form of the Socratic method. It was said of Socrates that he would challenge someone's statement,⁶ refute and confute it, by adroit questioning bring his opponent from "unconscious ignorance" to "conscious ignorance", lead him to a blank wall and then proceed to build up his argument. In the discussion session it is not always possible to arrive at the last stage but it does help to clear up muddled thinking, to promote the interplay of ideas, to split the problems wide open, and to reveal their many-sided complexity through a co-operative approach.

Great care, however, must be taken if discussions are not to degenerate into a mere exchange of ill-informed opinion and irrational prejudices. The discussion must be planned and carefully conducted — the subject well prepared, groups not too large, the Chairman carefully selected for his skill in guiding discussions and the session consolidated by written work.

A variation of this technique is the conference. An outside speaker or a well-prepared student gives a short stimulating speech on a chosen topic. The group is then divided into small sub-groups, each with a leader and secretary, to discuss various aspects of the larger topic. Secretaries read out condensed versions of the main findings

of their group so that every group benefits from the findings of the others. Further discussion may follow the general crystallized findings.

TUTORIAL SYSTEM

Even more valuable than the above is the tutorial system. This system as it is on the direct impact of person on person, has been the chief reason for whatever superiority the older universities may have over "Red-brick" education. In essence, their education is the influence of the more mature on the less mature.

While tutorials may involve moral and social guidance or helpful advice of any kind, their principal function is a kind of intellectual midwifery. In an intimate way the Tutor develops the thought process which must always be an activity of the student himself. The learner discovers how to analyse, judge and evaluate, while the Tutor leads and criticizes or the pupils try their own wings and pursue their intellectual flights.

Tutors guide reading and work; their help varies with the type of subject, capacity of the student, and his ability to stand on his own. The system of tutorship is essential to secure for each student an education suited to his peculiar needs and capacities and interests; to make him, not only a passive recipient of knowledge but an active co-operator in the process, and to ensure that a student's work and progress are adequately and effectively supervised.

The tutorial system is now a well-established part of all training colleges in England — every student on entry is allotted to a tutor who is responsible not only for his general and practical training but also acts as guide, philosopher and friend. Once the proper relationship is established, this interaction is generally of immense value not only to

the student but often to the tutor. Tutors often get their "small groups" together to discuss common problems so that they become aware of their "family" nature, and each is able to contribute something to the growth of the others. Tutors carefully watch the individual growth and progress of their students and their opinion carries and should carry great weight in the final assessment—but it must be, and is, balanced by those of his colleagues to reduce the "subjective factor" which is inevitable.

In some colleges besides a general tutor each student has a subject tutor to guide and direct his work in his special subject. This is very desirable for no tutor can be expected to be an expert in all subjects.

For a tutorial system to function at its best two things are necessary :—

(i) The staff must be adequate and well qualified not only academically but as human beings for their delicate task. The staffing ratio should be as 1 : 7 and care should be taken to provide as wide a variety of specialist and experienced teachers who possess in addition the sympathy and tact necessary to handle young people in the right way.

(ii) The buildings must be suitable — each member of the staff should have his own room for his tutorial work, and there should be a number of small rooms available for discussions and seminars. The breaking down of the "eternal wall" by sliding partitions that can divide large lecture rooms into a number of smaller rooms is one solution to a difficult problem in most training colleges — the problem of accommodation.

ACTIVITY METHODS: PROJECTS, CENTRES OF INTEREST, INTEGRATED STUDIES, LOCAL SURVEYS, ETC.

The principle of "learning by doing" at first hand from

observation and experience rather than at second hand from books, underlies all these methods which are variations on a common theme. Much enthusiasm is exhibited for such methods in most Psychology and "Method" lectures but they seldom find their way into the schools. The reason for this is not merely the intransigence of the schools and their resistance to new methods; it is due as much to the lack of real conviction on the part of the students themselves of the real value of these methods, and of their ability to use them successfully. It is essential for students to experience this new approach to the curriculum at their own level and that of the children they are to teach in order that they may be convinced, in theory and practice, of its value and workability, and gain the necessary self-confidence to carry it into the schools. The debate between the traditionalists, "the talk and chalk" school, and the progressives, who advocate the wholesale adoption of these "new methods", still continues, and extremists on both sides make extravagant claims for and charges against them. The true value of this new approach and its relation to time-honoured methods has been admirably summed up by Prof. Schonell, who hazards not a mere subjective opinion but bases his verdict on the results of the most up-to-date research on the matter.

For providing real experiences for children (and student teachers) introducing zest, enthusiasm and interest into the classroom the method stands head and shoulders above any other form of teaching. What, however, is just as certain is that, although the project method can revitalize the entire curriculum, it cannot entirely teach the techniques of arithmetic, reading and written English. These must be mastered in set lessons and then given interesting application and expansion in projects. It is futile to expect a project to teach techniques. . . . On the other hand, the teacher (and the

T.C.!) who neglects to use the project method is missing the most vital stimulus in the whole range of teaching methods.¹

Training colleges in England have not been slow to realize this, and projects, environment surveys etc. (such as we have described in Ch. IV) form a prominent part in all colleges and in those specializing in the training of nursery and infant teachers, play the most prominent role.

DIRECTED PRIVATE STUDY

This is an essential invaluable supplement to all the above methods of instruction. The only true education is self-education, hence the students must have the ability, time and facilities to pursue their interests and satisfy their needs on their own, with the help and guidance of their tutors, for this is the best way of developing initiative, resourcefulness and sense of responsibility in students. In the beginning they will have to be taught how to organize and use their time most effectively; to train them to do this should be the chief aim of the training college staff as a whole, for, once students learn how to work on their own, the problem of their present and future education is very largely solved. By means of suggested books or chapters of books, by outlined study, assignments, essays involving real research, tutors must stimulate and guide this self-education.

Students in most training colleges in England are being increasingly encouraged to work on their own. As a part of most "advanced courses" students are now expected to prepare a short dissertation or individual study on a topic chosen by them in consultation with their tutor. The standard of excellence achieved in these dissertations varies with colleges and with individual students, but it is, on the

¹ *Backwardness in the Basic Subjects*, pp. 434-5.

whole, considerably high. "Theses" in all subjects cover a very wide range of topics, often outside the narrow scope of the syllabus. They often reveal great individuality and involve much individual research. For instance, in one college a Mathematics student did a thesis on "Thales Surveys our Local District" in which he used calculations such as Thales would have made, thus producing, in the opinion of his tutor, a really original and stimulating piece of research. At another, an "advanced" Craft student did one on "Chinese Jade" which not only involved wide reading but visits to museums and art collections. Such theses should be an integral part of every "advanced" course. They foster initiative and self-reliance, make a student realize the widest implications of his subject and its relations to other subject fields, and urge him to extend himself and pursue an individual interest fully.

In the professional part of the curriculum also, students are being encouraged to undertake little bits of individual research such as the Cape Studies of individual children and groups children which we have described as the chief practical studies in the Psychology Course. In most colleges students submit these individual studies and research in lieu of a part of their final examination. This is as it should be, for they are probably a better test of a student's ability than a written examination. Teachers and students are generally in favour of these more active and individual methods of learning and convinced of their value and efficiency. The soundness of their opinion has been on the whole verified by the evidence of recent research. Dr Fleming, in her cautious manner, sums these up in the following words:

Experimental evidence of the efficacy of such methods is

rarely conclusive because of the specific character of the success in any one experiment and because of its dependence on imponderable factors, such as relationships between pupils and teachers. There is, however, a sufficient body of recorded opinion to testify to the general success of these methods.¹

In spite of the evidence of such research and its effect on individualizing and making more active training college methods of instruction in many colleges, we have found (and so did a group of H.M.I. who recently published a private memorandum on the training college curriculum and methods) passive methods and the tyranny of the formal lectures playing too prominent a role. The lecture has its place in every training college and is indispensable because of the shortness of the time and the extent of the curriculum to be covered. But much more time and emphasis should be placed on the principle of active individual and responsible effort and endeavour which underlie the theses, projects, centres of interest and similar "activity methods". Students also need much more free time to read widely in their own special fields and in related fields and every training college should have a well-equipped library where they can find all the books they need to pursue their special interests. The library indeed should be the heart of a training college and a training in its proper use should be an essential part of the training of all teachers. Most of the training colleges visited by me have had excellent libraries. But unfortunately students in most of them have not the free time or — at the beginning at least of their training, if not at the end — the ability to make the fullest use of them. They are busy, with one thing or another from 9 a.m. to 5 or 6 p.m. five days a week at the end of which

¹ Fleming, *Research and the Basic Curriculum*, p. 97.

they are generally too exhausted to use the library much or do much individual reading. This is inevitable in a two-year course into which so much has to be crowded; the three-year course ought to give students much more time to browse in the library and pursue their special interests.

The problem is not only one of time; it is also one of faulty school training, of immaturity, of lack of adequate staffing. Lecturers, especially in the women's colleges, have frequently complained that they are forced to adopt the lecture method because their students are so immature, and so used to being "spoonfed" at school that they feel lost and out of their depth if left to work out their own salvation. Indeed some lecturers complained that it often took them a year or more to train students to work on their own and, having a fairly extensive syllabus to cover, they had no alternative but to fall back on lecturing. Besides the tutorial system requires time and most lecturers carry too heavy a load of work to spare much time to give enough individual attention to their students. A tutor in the London Institute of Education is responsible for twelve students and does very little lecturing. The two-year college lecturer carries a full load of lectures and seminars; he supervises the teaching practice and is responsible for the general welfare of a group of "tutorial" students under his charge and also for guiding and assisting advanced students in his special subject. This is too heavy a burden for one individual to bear, and more generous staffing facilities will have to be given to training colleges if there is to be an extension of the tutorial system. That such an extension is highly desirable, and in fact essential, is unquestionable. Education is a highly personal art and it is chiefly by intimate contact with cultured and experienced men and women who under-

stand their individual needs that young students in the training colleges will be helped to grow and develop into mature and balanced personalities. More time is also of the essence. The lengthening of the course to three years, (agreed on in principal by the ministry and training college authorities) without any increase in, but some recasting of, the present curriculum will give students that extra time for thought and reflection, that opportunity to browse, read, chew and digest, to talk and to listen which are so essential if they "are to mature by living instead of to survive by hurrying."

EXAMINATIONS

Changes in the methods of instruction and the new emphasis on the hidden and non-examinable factors in the education of students, will inevitably make the old-type formal, written examination less valuable and somewhat "dated". Hence new methods of assessing the work, progress, and development of students will have to be devised and introduced into the training colleges, side by side with the old, if the new approach to training is to yield its maximum benefit. The testing of general and professional subjects is generally done mainly by means of a final examination written and practical. These examinations are generally set by Boards of Studies, in the individual subjects, on which the training college staff and the university are represented. Lecturers from all colleges submit questions and the University Moderator selects from these and draws up the paper. The examination papers are marked by the training college lecturers themselves in rotation, and their marking is "vetted" by the external examiner appointed by the Board of Studies in that subject. This type of examination, steering a middle way between the dangers of external and

internal examinations, is about the best form, so far as examinations go.

But formal examinations, we feel, should be reduced as far as possible in training colleges. Where they exist both lecturers and students, almost in spite of themselves, tend to keep one eye on them, and to study subjects as a means to passing an examination rather than as avenues to culture and personal development. Most written examinations lack one or the other of the basic qualities of validity, reliability, adequacy and objectivity; and they test actual achievement rather than intelligence and promise. Besides, examinations tend to lay the emphasis on the memory of facts or generalizations rather than on the understanding of them in such a way that they can be used in other situations. The best kind of examination may go further and discover what has happened to the surface of the mind, but to discover the educational reality—what has happened in the depths of the mind, and how the personality has been altered—no examination has been devised.

The assessment of students' work is necessary, and is a stimulus to effort; but such assessment should be a continuous one over the whole period of two years. Short tests may be set from time to time but a student's fate ought never to be determined by them or by a final examination. Every bit of individual work the student produces should be assessed,—his thesis, his project, his environmental study and his general application and keenness. Every student's performance should be measured in terms of his own capability and not only in terms of a minimum or uniform standard which tends, in most cases, to be too low rather than too high. This principle can be profitably applied to both the general and the professional subjects; for instance, a student's thesis would be as sound a test of his

ability as a written examination paper in his advanced subject and his school practice note-book which should contain not only notes of lessons but also case studies, criticisms of his work; his observations of children will be as good a guide to his professional growth and knowledge as papers on Psychology and Special Method.

Such a scheme of continuous assessment of a student's normal work over the whole course of his training, though more difficult to manipulate than a single examination, will put the assessment of the student's work on a much sounder basis than a set of examination papers can provide. If the final examination is retained, it ought to be a college examination, set and marked by the lecturers themselves and it ought to be only one of the factors considered in the final assessment. External assessors are necessary to see that standards in individual colleges are maintained but their role can be made more useful and vital. Instead of merely marking the final examination, they could be invited to visit the colleges in question two or three times a year to confer with the lecturers, and examine the work of the students to see that it is up to standard and proceeding on the right lines.

That such a system of assessment is more valuable and that it is practicable has been shown in the Emergency Training Colleges. Profiting from their experience two-year colleges all over England are taking advantage of the freedom allowed them by the new institutes of education to set up similar schemes. In the new regulations drawn up by the Southampton Area Training Organization it is provided that "examination shall take the form of written papers or of assessment or both at the discretion of the Professional Board." The Bristol University Department of Education, which has successfully worked such a

scheme of assessment for many years, is encouraging the constituent colleges of the Bristol Institute of Education to adopt a similar system, and is making use of external examiners, appointed by the Board of Studies, who are allotted three or four colleges each to see that students in these colleges are kept at a uniformly high level. They do not do this, as in the past, by setting or correcting examination papers once a year. Instead, they visit the training colleges in question three or four times a year, confer with lecturers on the progress, assess samples of the students' work, and see that a sufficiently high standard is being maintained. In this way these external examiners can not only see the final product but can trace the growth and development of individual students which is the best index that the syllabus is being handled in the right way and achieving its aim.

At a recent meeting of lecturers of the London Institute of Education the present examination system current in most training colleges came in for a good deal of constructive criticism. A special commission on Examination Reform suggested that:

(1) The main aim of examinations was to test the students' ability to think and the training colleges' main task was to integrate the two types of examinations — oral and written.

(2) Written examinations were essential for some subjects (advanced) but that further tutors' reports based on observations throughout the course should play an important part in assessment.

(3) Courses in creative work and in the ability to use information should not be examined; observation alone was recommended.

(4) The students' ability to observe children be examined either indirectly or informally by the tutor.

(5) In any practical subject involving skill the examination should be on the skill involved rather than on the theoretical or any other aspect of the subject.

The main point, constantly reiterated, was that examinations must be the servants and not the masters of training, and that in all assessments the opinion of the tutor should play an important part.

This goes to the heart of the matter of assessment. Modifications along the lines suggested above in the present mode of examinations should bring it more into keeping with modern methods and aims of teacher education and ensure that it will help and not hinder that education as it has so often done in the past. We repeat once more that whatever system of examination is adopted, it is imperative that the last word should rest with the tutors and lecturers in the colleges. And in the last analysis, the decision they have to make is not only whether the student has come up to a certain minimum standard in his examinations, oral, written, and practical, but whether he is a fit and proper person to be entrusted with the education of children at school. For this is what really matters.

CHAPTER X

THE TEACHER IN SERVICE

THE final product aimed at in any scheme of teacher training is a fully developed personality and an accomplished craftsman with a dash of the artist in his make-up. The moment we acknowledge this ideal we will realize that no course of training at college, however extended and complete in itself, can ever hope to complete the personal and professional growth and development of the teacher. If the education of an ordinary man or a woman is a continuous process from the cradle to the grave, how much more important it is to regard the education of a teacher in at least the same light:

The development of a teacher does not cease when he leaves the training college . . . he now begins to learn from a different kind of experience, and in so far as he remains capable of learning from experience, he goes on learning his craft all his life.¹

In any scheme for a complete education for a teacher the period of school forms the primary stage, that at college the secondary stage and that in service the stage of further education. The completion of a course of training merely signifies that the student is ready to begin teaching; it is a beginning, but it lays the foundation. Unless, however, this foundation is built upon during his period of service in the school and the teacher keeps in touch with modern developments much of the good done at college will be undone, the teacher will make no progress in his craft, and perhaps regress, for to stand still is to stagnate, and there is no profession in which there is a greater risk of falling into a rut. The teacher in service must, therefore, be as

¹ Oliver, *The Training of Teachers in the University*, p. 41.

important a figure as the teacher in training, and as great an effort made to guide, assist and educate him.

It is not (states the MacNair Committee) at present practicable to regard a person's preparation for a full teaching qualification as consisting of two parts; his education and training prior to entering upon his professional duties and further training after a period spent as a practising teacher. But it is an ideal to be kept in mind.¹

This emphasis on the in-service education of the teacher in England is in keeping with a corresponding movement in America, where this education is considered as an extended and essential part of a teacher's preparation.

The reason for this renewed emphasis on the teacher in service is not hard to find. With the daily broadening of the conception of what a teacher must be and be able to do has come the realization that only a lifelong preparation can produce a teacher even remotely resembling the ideal. College training, however extended, is bound to leave significant gaps in the knowledge, skills, attitudes and ideals of young teachers. Indeed, the most a training college can do is to create right attitudes in the teacher, awaken him to the possibilities and responsibilities of his profession, and give him a minimum degree of efficiency to prevent personal frustration and the exploitation of the children under his care. Every teacher worthy of his metal will build on this foundation a mastery of his craft in the hard school of experience, which must be supplemented by experiment in order to reach its fullness. A teacher to keep alive and fresh must become a learner from time to time, for the teacher who has stopped learning has stopped teaching even though he may go through all the external motions and actions of doing

¹ *Teachers and Youth Leaders*, p. 137.

so. Constant outpouring needs constant intaking; practice must be reinforced by theory and the old must be constantly tested by the new."

Another reason for stressing the in-service education of the teacher is that some aspects of his training can perhaps best be completed while he is in service because, as Sir Richard Livingstone has pointed out, for many studies is required not merely maturity of intellectual capacity but also experience of life. In the valuable post-training years when theory is cross-fertilized by practice, and training college lecturers take on flesh and blood in the light of experience, subjects like psychology and principles of education begin to take on a new meaning. It is at this time that these subjects may be most profitably studied through refresher courses or post-certificate diplomas such as are being set up by the new Institutes of Education. A few years of teaching also reveals to the young teacher his personal weaknesses and deficiencies, and creates in him a desire to remedy them. It is perhaps with reasons like this in mind that Prof. Oliver says:

the best arrangement for the training of a teacher would appear to be a College or University period during which study somewhat predominates over practice, followed by a period of employment during which practice is illuminated by study at intervals.¹

The education of the teacher in service must thus be planned to be an integral part of his total preparation. "Planning", however, must not imply regimentation, uniformity or imposition by the State, Ministry, L.E.A's or the new Institutes of Education. All these bodies must provide facilities and opportunities for such education but there

¹ Oliver, *The Training of Teachers in the University*, p. 43.

must be no pressure, direction or imposition of the teacher to use them. Once the teacher is qualified and has served his apprenticeship he must be treated as a responsible adult in the matter of his further education, for he knows best his own needs. He may be guided but the ultimate choice must be his, for any compulsion would ruin the value of such education.

Training colleges must shoulder the responsibility for stimulating the teacher's desire to continue his education. The training college which sends out young teachers, jaded or bored or without ideals and enthusiasm, has defeated any attempts at later education; hence, they must endeavour to give their students a sense of vocation and to make them realize that the mastery of their craft is a lifelong job.

Nor must it wash the certificated teacher off its hands once he leaves the college precincts; it should help him to find his first job, settle down and find happiness in it. Many training colleges do a great deal in this education but lecturers and heads complain that they can do little because of pressure of work and the scattering of their students all over England and Wales.

PLACEMENT

The teacher in service needs help even before he leaves the training college to find his first job. The first placement of young teachers is one of the great weaknesses of the English system. Some L.E.A's exercise great care in their choice of schools for young teachers and make arrangements for their careful supervision during probation; others do not. In many areas very little care is taken in making new appointments. New teachers are booked *en bloc* without any special vacancies in mind and are often posted to the first vacancy irrespective of whether they are qualified for it or not. Others

are put "on supply", an experience calculated to shatter any but the most experienced. Others are appointed under unsympathetic heads or colleagues.

Such experience can undo in a year all the good work of school and training college preparation. The first year is of the utmost importance in the development of the young teacher, hence special care should be taken in their first appointment. The N.U.T. Committee urged "Local Education Authorities to make up lists of first appointments with definite vacancies in mind,"¹ so that the young teachers may have the opportunity of working in the type of school for which they have special aptitudes, and where the head is sympathetic and is prepared to give them that further help and guidance they need. It is to be hoped that some such plan or the drawing up of a list of approved schools for young teachers will be implemented so that young teachers can begin work under the most favourable circumstances.

PROBATION

Is bound with placement. Since 1926 the period of probation for elementary teachers has been fixed at one year which may be extended or varied at the discretion of the H.M.I. No probation was fixed for University Training Department trainees. The purpose of this period was three-fold: to make the period of probation a testing time for young teachers, a safeguard against premature dismissal by heads or L.E.A's, and to bring home to the latter the fact that the young teacher was a probationer in special need of advice, help and encouragement. Probation then is primarily a testing time and a period of apprenticeship during which the young teacher is learning his task under

¹ N. U. T. Report, *The Training of Teachers*, p. 225.

expert help and guidance. Evidence seems to show that it is deficient in both particulars. "On the whole," said a recent Editorial in the T.E.S., "the probationary period was not a very serious investigation into the teacher's practical proficiency for an exacting job. It was easy enough to get by and most teachers did."¹ This was partly due to the shortage of teachers and the fact that H.M.I. did not have enough time to do their supervision adequately or to help and advise the students.

Heads of schools, too, are frequently too busy to afford much help to the novices. Some are indifferent; Tudhope found the attitude of many heads to probationers far from satisfactory and adds:

the attitude of the Head towards the young teacher is especially important and the need for sympathetic help and guidance which the young teacher's first post of special responsibility makes necessary cannot be overstressed.²

Heads who are willing and able to shoulder this responsibility should be chosen for young probationers to work under. The alternative is that young teachers are left to fend for themselves without help or advice when they most need them. "The first year of service is a critical year in the teacher's career . . . independent choice of a class always brings a flood of problems that had not arisen in the artificial practice teaching. It is in fact no exaggeration to say that the young teacher is often made or marred by the condition of his first appointment."³ Most teachers weather the storm, but many fail to stand up to the strain and even those who survive lose much in the struggle. The probationary

¹ *Times Educational Supplement*, 22 January 1942.

² Tudhope, "Attitudes of Secondary School Authorities towards the Training College Course", *B.J.E.P.* p. 54.

³ Scottish Advisory Council Report, *The Training of Teachers*, p. 54.

year, (which should be made compulsory for all graduates and non-graduates) then must be made an integral part of the education of all teachers. Well used, it can compensate for many of the deficiencies of the two-year course and the short Post-Graduate Diploma Course, and provide the third year which all training colleges desire. This is a vital year for most young teachers who realize during it whether they have the makings of a teacher or not. Misfits there are bound to be, and they can be discovered and guided elsewhere. The successful should be helped to grow, and their early enthusiasm not damped but stimulated. The probationary year must further serve as a bridge between the training college and the school, it must help the young teacher to settle in his profession with the minimum of disappointment and dissatisfaction and to develop into a good teacher.

The responsibility for seeing that this period is fully utilized to achieve its desired end rests not only with the heads but also with the L.E.A.'s which employ these young teachers, and a diligent discharge of their duty will benefit both the teachers and the children they teach. Middlesex has given an encouraging lead in this direction by appointing six special supervisors to supervise and guide the work of E.T.C. teachers and young probationers from the two-year colleges. Their duties have been specifically defined. They must pay at least three visits a year to probationers, and six to E.T.C. teachers, to supervise and report on their practical proficiency and give them whatever help and encouragement lies in their power.

Large L.E.A's would do well to follow this example. But the smaller L.E.A's would find it hard to appoint special men or women for this job. This is not, however, an insuperable difficulty. Supervisors are an additional help but they must work in close co-operation with heads and

teachers. Where they are missing, heads are quite capable of shouldering the sole responsibility if suitable provision for it is made in their time-tables.

Experienced teachers and the staffs of the training colleges can help them, especially the latter. This has been done, with regard to E.T.C. teachers, in the Bristol and Portsmouth areas where the training colleges are becoming a training focus for schools of the area. Once a week teachers come into the college for a day or half-day with their problems and study programmes, which they carry out with the help of tutors and lecturers. If all training colleges were better staffed they could extend this similar service to ordinary two-year teachers in their area, (irrespective of where they are trained), in need of their help and encouragement and advice.

THE NEED FOR CONTINUED EDUCATION

The period of probation over, the teacher is fully qualified and begins his long period of apprenticeship till he becomes a master craftsman. Not all teachers attain this final perfection; some never get beyond the apprentice stage, others fail to stand up to the day-to-day strain, many linger on maladjusted, unhappy and incompetent because, trained as teachers, they feel unfit for anything else. The causes for such maladjustments are many—personal difficulties, unsuitable placement, difficult conditions of class management or discipline, limited scope for professional initiative of social ambitions. Some of these causes are too deep-rooted to be cured, but many of them can be alleviated and some of them prevented by a programme of further education designed for this purpose. Such a programme should aim to eliminate obstacles to and to give stimuli for personal and professional growth by providing adequate

facilities for renewed training without which most teachers will soon get into a rut and relapse into mere technicians.

PROVISIONS FOR IN-SERVICE EDUCATION IN ENGLAND

The necessity for the progressive education of teachers has been realized and facilities provided for it only in the last 25 years. But, during this short space of time, progress has been very rapid. The Ministry, L.E.A's, and Teachers' Associations have vied with one another in providing courses which have been enthusiastically received by teachers.

I have on two or three occasions attended such courses and have been impressed by the enthusiasm of those participating in them not only to receive but to contribute their bit to the common pool of knowledge and experience.

Participation in such courses should be an unwritten duty in every teacher's professional code and such periods of renewed training, a regular feature of their training and education. Every help and encouragement, financial and otherwise, should be given them to attend such courses, attendance at which should be counted towards increments in salary.

We will now examine existing provisions for In-Service Education in England and suggest possible improvements.

Third Year Courses are generally provided at training colleges or specialized institutions such as domestic science colleges, or colleges of physical education or art or technical colleges. They are more rarely provided in academic subjects such as Science, Biology, French, Geography or Divinity. Unfortunately, very few training college students get the opportunity to take such courses. There is urgent need for them to be thrown open to more students, and for an under-range of subjects to be made available especially of the more academic kind. Under the new institutes of

education it ought to be possible for these to be given at the university or at recognized colleges of the university.

Such courses will enable the ordinary two-year students to deepen and extend their knowledge of their subjects, providing them with university contacts which will widen their mental horizon. They may be taken immediately after training, or after a few years' teaching when the teacher feels the need to extend his knowledge of his subject and refurbish his mind.

Deferred courses of a more advanced type will be the new Post-Certificate Diploma in Education which all Institutes of Education hope to establish or the Diploma of the Department of Child Development at the Institute of Education which is open to nursery and infant teachers of at least five years' standing who wish to take a higher degree course in their own field with a view to becoming lecturers in training colleges. Besides these full-time courses, there is an infinite variety of part-time courses and other facilities for a teacher to improve himself personally and professionally.

DISCUSSION GROUPS, STUDY CIRCLES, READING CIRCLES, POETRY GROUPS, DRAMATIC SOCIETIES

These are short, intermittent but sustained forms of in-service education. They consist of small but enthusiastic groups of people who meet to discuss or study common problems or to share experiences they enjoy in common such as poetry and drama. The London Stage Players for instance, are a group of young teachers who get up and perform well-known plays for the benefit of school children from all over London. The London Association of English Teachers has recently formed a number of small groups who are investigating different problems in the English syllabus for secondary schools. A vast field for research

exists here in every subject and it is one which can be best tackled by teachers themselves who have to teach these syllabuses to children and so can judge their impact on them. Such research will give them a new insight into, and a new zest for, their job which will cease to be a hum-drum routine affair and become an exciting adventure.

In this context an even more interesting development which promises well for the future has taken place at Bristol. Under the new Institute of Education Scheme, almost complete autonomy has been given to individual colleges to plan their own syllabuses. This has made necessary a change of function in the old Boards of Studies which under the Joint Boards were syllabus-making and examining bodies for the various subjects. Bristol has solved this problem in a happy way. The Boards of Studies, under the new Scheme, was constituted of university lecturers. Training college staff and practising teachers from the schools, have been made into Research Panels to carry on research into curricula matters in their own subject fields. This co-operation between the university training college and the schools in research is bound, sooner or later, to produce excellent results in exploring what has been hitherto a largely unexplored field. The lead given by Bristol could, with advantage, be followed by the boards of studies under other institutes.

EXCHANGE OF TEACHERS AND SECONDMENT TO COLONIAL SERVICE ETC.

This is a new but rapidly growing form of continued education. It started between England and America and last year over 200 teachers were exchanged on each side. It was extended to the Continent, particularly to France, Belgium, Switzerland, Denmark and Sweden and recently

it has been extended to some of the Dominions including Australia, New Zealand and Ceylon. This, in my opinion, is an invaluable means not only of fostering the further education of teachers but of encouraging international understanding which the world needs so badly. Travel is the great educator and one teacher, carefully chosen, can bring the influence of his country into a whole community. The recent case of an American Negro teacher who in England was at first received with hostility born of ignorance, but later became one of the best loved members of a small village community goes to illustrate this. The exchange of teachers should be promoted on a world-wide scale; this is a work that should be undertaken by U.N.E.S.C.O. if they want their efforts to bear fruit. There are difficulties, financial and linguistic, to be overcome in some cases, but none is insuperable, provided governments are convinced that this is one of the most practical forms of promoting international co-operation and world peace, and one of the best methods of producing truly cultured teachers for their respective countries.

SABBATICAL LEAVE AND SECONDMENT TO TRAINING COLLEGES

Facilities in the past have been all too few for suitable teachers who wished to carry out research, to devote a year to this work and to take advanced degrees if they wished. Many universities provide degrees such as the B.Ed. in Edinburgh and the M.A. and Ph.D. in London. But teachers either had to give up their jobs to pursue a year's wholtime study for them with the prospect of consequent financial loss (which deterred many a capable teacher from doing so) or to study part-time at evening classes as in London — a prospect that is very exacting and appeals

to none but the bravest. Yet men of ability and ambition must be given the facilities for such advanced study, or research will be confined to university lecturers who are very often out of contact with conditions and problems in the classroom.

The MacNair Report recognized this need and recommended:

that the Board of Education should offer a small number of valuable Educational Fellowships to enable highly qualified practising teachers to give up teaching for a period of one or two years in order that they may study education, its principles and practices, in this country, and where necessary abroad.¹

But such sabbatical leave is necessary not only for the few but for the many. The Ministry seems to have recognized this, for recently they have promulgated a rule under which any teacher of 5 years' experience can get a grant of up to £300 for one year's further "approved study" in England or abroad. This grant is sure to be more and more used once the new Certification Scheme comes into force whereby all teachers, primary and secondary, will get the Certificate in Education, and the Diploma in Education will be a further stage in the professional qualification of the teachers. Bristol has already set up a course for this new Diploma in Education; other universities are in the process of doing so. Teachers will be allowed to take this course only after a period of at least 5 years' experience, and it is bound to be of tremendous value in their continued education and more than adequate compensation for the truncated course of training with which most of them have to be content now.

I would personally, however, like to see the content of the term "approved study" extended to include "approved

¹ *Teachers and Youth Leaders*, p. 82.

study or experience", the latter to include merely travel, "loafing around the Continent with a rucksack" if necessary. This may not be study in the orthodox sense but it may contribute more to the teacher's personal growth and experience than even a year spent taking his Diploma in Education. This may sound like heresy but I nevertheless put it forward as an idea worth trying. For approved study of the more conventional type needless to say, the universities, or, under the new scheme, the University Institutes of Education are the obvious places, though training colleges can help tremendously. The University Institutes indeed should regard the renewed training of teachers as one of their most important services they can render the community. It is one which they with their resources are well equipped to undertake. There is no doubt teachers would make excellent use of their opportunities and the universities would more and more take their rightful places as centres for the diffusion of culture.

Bristol's Director of Education, Prof. Fletcher, has drawn up a five-year plan for the progress of the Institute; in the fourth year of this plan attention is to be concentrated on the in-service education of the teachers in the Bristol area. Plans for this are already afoot—in the new Diploma Courses, in meetings and conferences of practising teachers, in a special type of course borrowed from America, called the "workshop", of teachers who have come together to solve, with the aid of experts from the universities of training colleges, some problem in education in which they have a common interest. This trend in favour of closer teacher participation in the planning and running of such refresher courses, and in their closer relation to the teachers' needs as felt in the course of their daily work, is one deserving of extension. In-service education must never be

regarded as something "done" to teachers but something they must desire, plan and participate in themselves. The responsibility for self-improvement must be fundamentally the teacher's, his interest in his own continuous growth must be recognized and given free play. In this way a more fruitful relationship than in the past between teachers, training colleges and universities will be established with excellent results. Next on the list of provisions for the "In-Service education" comes the wide variety of courses of all types, organized generally during vacation time by Teachers' Associations, L.E.A's, the Ministry of Education, and the new Institutes of Education. These either take the form of exhibitions, film displays, teacher's days or week-ends which cover a short period of time or the more extended Summer, Winter, and Easter Vacation Courses. They are provided either on a national basis, if organized by the Ministry, or on a regional basis. They aim to meet special needs as discovered by H.M.I. Tuition is free, the travelling expenses of teachers if over 10 shillings are met by L.E.A's, and the Ministry subsidizes the cost of food and accommodation so that the maximum cost to attending teachers will never be more than £6, part of which is generally met by L.E.A's. The demand for admission is generally far in excess of the supply of places which testifies to the popularity of such courses. The Ministry pamphlet on Summer Courses for 1949 lists over 65 courses in a very wide variety of subjects and methods of teaching them. The value of such courses is obvious. They can revivify human interest and the professional zeal and skill of those who are growing stale, and bring their knowledge and practice up-to-date by putting them in touch with the findings of the latest research. They can pioneer new methods and developments among teachers. Above all they can give teachers an

opportunity to meet and exchange views with specialists and one another — all Life is meeting.

A survey of such courses reveals one or two deficiencies, admirable though those courses are. There is need for more courses of a cultural character aiming to develop the teacher as an individual and as a member of his community, for most of the courses are professional in nature.

Elementary teachers must today be as widely cultured as possible and every opportunity given them to become so. The provisions of suitable courses could well form a part of the extra-mural work of the universities under the new Institute of Education Scheme. They could be organized on W.E.A. lines or on the American pattern whereby the teacher by attending short intensive courses over a period of three to five years would be eligible to sit for a diploma or degree in the subject he is studying if he so wished. There is also need for courses or schools on subjects which lend themselves to an intensive and profitable study after a teacher has had some experience of life and of teaching such as Psychology, Religious Education and the Philosophy of Education.

There is also room for improvement in the general organization and running of these courses. They should be held not only in holiday seasons but also in term time, and teachers be given leave on full pay to attend them. This was suggested by the Departmental Committee:

Holiday courses are very popular but we do not think supplementary courses should be confined to them. Change in one sense is rest and change from teaching to being taught is mentally refreshing but too much course and too little holiday is not good for bodily health.¹

¹ Departmental Committee on "The Training of Teachers for the Public Elementary Schools", p. 85.

Or, it may be added, for mental and spiritual well-being. The expenses of all teachers who attend courses should be paid in full and they should be given credit for courses attended by accelerated increments and when promotions are being made. But, above all, teachers must themselves be given an even larger and more active part* in planning and running such courses. They must not be provided, however wisely and benevolently, from above, but must be arranged, as far as possible, by groups of teachers who have problems in common to which they wish to find a joint solution.

“Workshops” which are becoming increasingly popular in America and which Bristol is attempting to introduce in England, must become a more prominent feature of the Short Course Scheme in England. Such workshops are generally held on university premises where resources and guidance for intensive work are available and under circumstances conducive to mutual stimulation and friendly co-operation. Lectures are at a minimum and programmes of work are built flexibly round the practical problems of the participants. Such workshops could be profitably organized by the new Institutes of Education and would provide and broaden the range of opportunities available to teachers seeking aid in self-improvement. In this way as well as by their emphasis on flexibility and co-operative planning they would increase the likelihood of teachers obtaining experiences and knowledge suited to their particular individual needs.

A comprehensive and well-integrated programme of in-service education such as we have outlined above will provide the brightest prospect for the increased effectiveness of teachers. The Departmental Committee referring to this vitally important matter of the necessity of providing for the

teacher in service the same facilities as for the teacher in training, says:

for the present attendance can only be voluntary but we look forward to a time when they will have been formally adopted in a national policy and when arrangements for all teachers to attend them at regular intervals of a few years will become part of the national system.¹

This ideal has not yet been realized but if progress takes place along the lines suggested above and those which have been proved by experience, we feel that the day will soon dawn when it will become a reality. We do hope, however, that there will never be any "compulsion" for a teacher to use the facilities provided, such as suggested by Dent, who holds that the preparatory training given by the training college should be succeeded as a matter of course by further regular formal and compulsory periods of training, each of considerable duration.²

Such compulsion, we feel, would largely defeat its own purpose. The only worthwhile compulsion should be such as is provided by the teacher's recognition that such further education is essential for his intellectual and personal development.

There should be every inducement for teachers to make attendance at such courses a regular part of their professional life. A teacher is a human being with the hopes and ambitions and needs of people in other professions. Hence, the inducements offered by these courses should be such as will both help his personal growth, and contribute to his prospects for promotion and advancement in his profession. The present Burnham Scales for teachers are defective in this rather important aspect, that they do not

¹ Departmental Committee on "The Training of Teachers for the Public Elementary Schools", p. 85.

² Dent, *To be a Teacher*, p. 91.

make sufficient allowance for young teachers who have the ambition to "get on" and who attend courses of further education to improve themselves. We do not agree with Dent's suggestion that the teaching profession should be organized as a hierarchy, with examinations and tests of professional competence to determine in which grade a teacher is to be placed and on which promotion depends. Such a system would, in our opinion, destroy the nascent unity of the profession and lead to an undue scrambling for the prizes of the profession, and the children would surely suffer in the process. But we do think that attendance at courses of further education should be considered when promotions are being made, and that they should count towards accelerated increments.

Such inducements provided, the ultimate responsibility for self-improvement must be with the teacher. The choice must be his though he may be guided to choose wisely, and the widest possible facilities provided to make his choice as flexible, fruitful and as personal as possible. But the final decision and responsibility, we cannot repeat too often, must be the teacher's; to force them on him would be to negative the whole value of the scheme. Judging from the enthusiastic voluntary response to refresher courses now, there is little danger that teachers in England will not freely avail themselves of such facilities as are provided; indeed the tremendous demand for such courses proves that teachers are only too well aware of their responsibilities and of the need for continuous growth.

Teacher education is not something that can be completed once and for all in the case of any individual, completion being marked by the attainment of a degree or a certificate. Teacher education never ends.¹

Need we say more?

¹ *Teachers for Our Times*, p. 60.

CHAPTER XI

THE UNIVERSITIES AND THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN THE TWO-YEAR COLLEGES

THE system of training teachers for the public elementary school, conceived by Lancaster, nurtured by Kaye-Shuttleworth and other voluntary associations, and finally given formal recognition and support by the Board of Education, grew up in almost complete isolation from the universities. The two-year colleges were born, shaped and moulded into a form, and given a character and individuality of their own, apart from the main centres of learning of the country. This was in some ways an advantage: it enabled them to shape their own destiny, for better or for worse, unhampered by worn-out traditions or pre-conceived theories; but, perhaps, it was in greater measure a disaster, for they were cut off from the clear, life-giving and liberalizing sources of real knowledge and culture, the universities. This fact, perhaps more than any other, gave birth to the heresy that an elementary teacher needed to be trained but not educated, and that his secondary colleagues needed to be educated but not trained. The narrow interpretation given to the word "training" at the first training colleges, their open or implied hostility to culture or learning in the real sense, was chiefly responsible for the delayed recognition of the fact, universally accepted today that all teachers need to be trained for their job, and led to the growing rift between elementary and secondary teachers which progressive opinion on both sides is now trying so hard to bridge. The word "training" in the narrow sense also held back the universities from having anything to do with the training of elementary teachers.

Because of these factors there was, till the last decade of

the 19th century, an attitude of open or implicit hostility between the universities and the two-year colleges, which as a result grew up in a backwater, as it were, cut off from the main stream of cultural life in the country. The elementary schools and the training colleges, which trained their staff, formed a "closed shop", a vicious circle, cut from the public and secondary schools and the universities, and with few or no points of contact with them. But this began to change in the second half of the 19th century. Most of the administrators of the Board of Education which administered the elementary school system were public school and university men whose ideas of education and culture were much wider and more humane than "instruction of the labouring poor in the elements of reading, writing and arithmetic." Their liberal ideas and ideals might have appeared somewhat incongruous when applied to the conditions obtaining in most elementary schools; still these men soon realized that some attempt had to be made to increase the meagre educational fare served out at these Institutions if the education given at them was to be of any real value. Hence their curriculum was revised and enlarged, new subjects were added, and, in form at least, the elementary schools began to take on some of the characteristics of the secondary public schools. The famous Code of 1901, in which the aim of the elementary school was defined as "to form and strengthen the character and to develop the intelligence of children entrusted to it, and to make the best use of the school years available in assisting both boys and girls, according to their different needs, to fit themselves, practically as well as intellectually for the work of life," summed up the new vision of the functions of these schools which were joined in an uneasy partnership to the grammar schools by the 1902 Act.

This coming together of the elementary and secondary schools was bound to have repercussions in the National Training System. The two-year training college curriculum was considerably broadened and liberalized to prepare elementary teachers for the new demands being made on them; and it soon began to be realized that even the secondary teachers needed some training, in addition to their university degree, to enable them to impart their knowledge most effectively under classroom conditions. Such teachers could not be trained in the existing two-year colleges which in any case were overcrowded and unable to cope with even the demands of the elementary schools. The Cross Commission (1885) realizing this proposed that Day Training Colleges or University Training Departments should be set up in which the universities would co-operate to train teachers mainly for the secondary schools. The universities, especially the new universities, were not slow to accept this encouraging invitation to try their hand in a new and unexplored field. London University gave the lead. In 1890 the London Day Training College was established providing a three-year concurrent course leading to a degree and a diploma in teaching, and it was followed in the next twenty years by the setting up of University Training Departments in most of the other universities. With the growth, development and working of these departments we are not here concerned; we shall concentrate instead on their influence on the training of teachers in the two-year colleges.

A. *First Contacts*: the University Training Departments were the first links in a chain that was to bind, however loosely, the two-year colleges and the university with great mutual advantage to both. Their immediate influence on these colleges was twofold. Firstly, their broader and

more liberal conception of the training was bound, sooner or later, to influence the two-year colleges; and their students, often compelled to work in the elementary schools side by side with those trained in the former soon showed that they were better educated and trained than their colleagues and the better teachers for it. Secondly, the U.T.D's provided better qualified, broader visioned staff for the two-year colleges who soon began to liberalize the general education and professional training given in these colleges.

B. *The Joint Boards*: closer co-operation between the universities and the two-year training colleges was made possible by the grouping together of the colleges on a regional basis under the Joint Boards. On these, universities, local education authorities and the T.C. authorities were represented, and to them the Board delegated the power to draw up syllabuses, examine and recommend for Certification of the teachers trained in the two-year colleges under their jurisdiction. The Board of Education through His Majesty's Inspectors saw to the maintenance of a uniform standard between region and region, and continued to play a large part in the assessment of the practical efficiency of teachers. The Joint Boards appointed Boards of Studies or Subject Committees consisting of university representatives, who act as external examiners, and training college lecturers to draw up syllabuses and conduct the training college examinations which resulted in a good deal of contact between university lecturers and the training college authorities. The Joint Boards were clearly designed to draw the universities much more closely into the system of Teacher Training. The bond between the universities and the two-year colleges was mainly a syllabus-making and an examination one, but it was hoped this would lead to closer

personal contact between the two which would be of mutual benefit to both. Much fruitful co-operation took place between university lecturers and the training college staff on these Boards of Studies, and the greater autonomy and freedom given by the university to the two-year colleges in matters of internal curricula, methods and discipline enabled the latter to develop a life and individuality of their own. The students at the training colleges were also permitted in some cases e.g. Durham, to take their general education courses at the universities, and many of them took internal or external degrees while in residence at their respective training colleges. In one or two cases e.g. Goldsmith's College, degree courses were given at the colleges themselves by teachers recognized as being of the University standard, and in one case at least — the King's College of Household and Domestic Science — a training institution was elevated to the status of a college of the University, with the power to grant its own degrees.

The Joint Boards thus did promote a closer relationship between the universities and the training colleges. But they were limited in what they could accomplish not only by apathy, distance, the lack of really vital bonds, but by the fact that they trained teachers only for the elementary schools and did not possess the powers and prestige of the University Training Department, even though the universities were represented by both. There still existed in fact two distinct and independent training systems, with a slender link between them. The U.T.D's trained graduates and awarded them their own diploma, which was recognized by the Ministry. The Joint Boards were responsible for the training of non-graduates who were certified and were partly examined by the officers of the Board. Separate Burnham scales and status differences intensified the division.

What made this cleavage not only unjust but also anomalous was the fact that the teachers from the two separated systems often met in the same post-primary schools and performed the same functions in them. This cleavage became even more unjust and anachronistic when the Hadow Reports were published stressing the continuity and essential worthwhileness of the educational process at its various stages. These reports implied that teachers in all schools performed equally important work, hence it was realized that all teachers needed a preparation that was similar in quality though diverse in type. This recognition is implicit in the White Paper of 1943, the new conception of "Education according to the 3 A's" which it laid down clearly implied the necessity for better qualified and trained teachers, especially for the primary and the new secondary schools. The N.U.T. Report put this issue quite clearly: "If the education service is to be regarded as a unified service and work in every part of it is to be considered commensurate in value, dignity and responsibility, it becomes a matter of vital importance to secure for teachers who have received their training in a training college an equivalence in status with teachers who have taken their degree in the University."

The 1944 Act created a unified education service for the child from birth to maturity. To the MacNair Committee fell the task of creating a unified and well-qualified profession to give effect to the provisions of the Act. The Committee realized that the existing system of training was "chaotic and ill-adjusted" to provide such a profession, and that there was need for a complete reorganization and reorientation in the National System for the training of teachers. There were, in fact, as mentioned before not one but two separate and almost self-contained systems of training—one conducted by the university at the University

Training Departments, and the other by the Joint Board at the two-year colleges. These Joint Boards had been designed to bring the universities and the two-year colleges closer together but they had not really succeeded in bringing about any intimate degree of co-operation between the two, or between the training colleges themselves, or between those other institutions such as art schools, and technical institutes which also had a share in the training of teachers for the schools. What was needed was a single unified, national system of training that would knit all these elements into a close and organic whole, and that would turn out teachers who were equally well but variously educated and trained for all types of schools in England. "All kinds of fissures and distinctions have in the past broken up the teaching profession into a thing of bits and pieces. The Education Act aims at giving unity to the whole school system, but if teachers do not emerge from their colleges with a sense of unity in their profession, the underlying unity planned in the Act will never become a reality. If on the other hand a sense of unity is imparted in the colleges, a tremendous access of power will flow into the education service."

There were two alternative methods of achieving this desirable unity. The first was to set up a centralized body in London, under the direct control of the Ministry of Education responsible for the training of all types of teachers throughout England, which would have meant a form of totalitarianism and nationalization. The alternative was to preserve the existing decentralization, but to form a new and more effective type of regional organization to replace the Joint Boards, which would be responsible for the training of all teachers in its area. The MacNair Committee after weighing both alternatives in the balance came down unhesitatingly and firmly in favour of the latter: "The

Board of Education (Ministry) must for many years to come, and perhaps always, be the sole authority with power to recognize a person as a qualified teacher; but neither the Board nor any other central authority should conduct or directly control the education and training of teachers. We therefore picture a national service consisting of a number of Area Services with a high degree of area autonomy."¹

Such Area Services or regional organizations could only be centred round the universities which alone had the tradition, the prestige, the autonomy, and the ability to weld all institutions concerned with the training of teachers, into a single, integrated, all-embracing and variegated system, to bring all the available resources of the area to bear on the problems of the education and training of teachers and thus to produce the new type of teacher demanded by the 1944 Act. The MacNair Committee was convinced that only the universities could be relied upon to ensure that all teachers were educated and trained, to bridge the cleavages between the various sections of the profession and types of schools and to unify them all into one profession; to break down the isolation of teachers in the two-year colleges from their fellows trained under the liberalizing influence of the university; to raise the status of the profession as a whole in the public eye by giving all teachers a university hall-mark; and to preserve the autonomy and freedom of expression from any encroachment by the State and to give a new vitality to the schools of the nation. "The universities have an obligation to the educational system. Their vitality depends in part upon the kind of education given in the schools both primary and secondary; and the schools in turn look to the university for some measure of leadership in educational, as distinct from administrative,

¹ *Teachers and Youth Leaders*, p. 152.

matters. There is no more significant way in which this mutual dependence can be expressed than for the universities to play a leading part in the initial education and training of teachers and for them to maintain a creative relationship with practising teachers and others concerned with the conduct of the schools."¹ For all these reasons, one section of the MacNair Committee, which proved later to be the most influential, recommended that universities throughout England should in the future "accept new responsibilities for the education and training of teachers," especially those in the two-year colleges, and to bring this about they proposed that university institutes or schools of education should be set up throughout England. These would be a new form of Area Training Organizations on which would be represented all bodies and institutions interested in the training of teachers with the local university as a sort of senior partner, taking upon itself the main responsibility for the training of all teachers in its area.

This plan, Scheme A as it came to be known, met with a good deal of opposition. Within the MacNair Committee itself there was a dissenting group, led by the Chairman, which believed the existing Joint Boards could be modified and adapted to meet the new circumstances. They held that the universities could not possibly admit a flood of new teachers without lowering their academic standards and diluting their culture; nor did they think it desirable that the universities should be in a position to interfere with the autonomy of two-year colleges. Closer co-operation, they agreed, was necessary, but they proposed it should be brought about by an extension of the powers and responsibilities of Joint Boards and some re-modelling

¹ Ibid. p. 170.

of their constitutions to give the universities a larger say. This was known as Scheme B. The Committee of Vice-Chancellors of the universities, also, influenced by similar considerations recommended a compromise Scheme C whereby Institutes of Education would be set up on the lines advocated by the authors of Scheme A, but they would be the direct responsibility not of the University but of the Ministry of Education.

The authors of Scheme A however remained firm, and finally their Scheme won almost universal acceptance. London University gave a bold uncompromising lead by accepting this Scheme in its entirety, and most of the other provincial universities followed suit — only Reading, Liverpool and Cambridge Universities opting for Scheme C.

It now remains to examine more closely the nature, organization and functions of the Area Training Organizations, to point out in what respect they differ from the old Joint Boards, and to endeavour to show how far the ideals of their supporters are being realized in practice by an examination of the working of a representative institute, the Bristol University Institute of Education.

THE INSTITUTES OF EDUCATION

Under this form of Area Training Organization, the Institute of Education forms a nucleus round which are grouped the university, the L.E.A's, the two-year colleges and all other institutions in the Area such as Art Schools, Technical Institutes, etc. which contribute to the training of teachers, the teachers of the area, and the Ministry of Education. This composite unit is known as a University Institute of Education; it forms a "professional school" of the university, like the medical or law schools, and is directly responsible to it. The various

training institutions and interests are constituent members of the Institute which forms a direct link between them; and all students whether in training at the University Training Departments or the other training colleges are recognized students of the Institute, which, at the end of their approved course of training recommends them for the Ministry of Education award of a common professional qualification — a Diploma or Certificate of Education recognized by the Ministry for certification purposes. Thus the university authorities have been made largely responsible for the overall supervision and control of the training of *all* teachers in its area, irrespective of the institution in which they are trained. This is the crux of Scheme A : that the universities must shoulder the main responsibility, for, in the opinion of its authors, the universities working in partnership with other interested parties, alone have the prestige, the autonomy and the high standards necessary to unify the profession, raise its status as a whole, safeguard its rights and freedoms, and maintain and improve the quality of the education and training given to teachers for all types of schools in England. "We believe that in the years to come it will be considered disastrous if the national system for the training of teachers is found to be divorced from the work of the university or even to be running parallel to it."¹

ORGANIZATION OF THE INSTITUTES OF EDUCATION

The Institutes will be administered by a Delegacy, directly responsible to the University Senate, consisting of representatives of the universities, U.T.D's, two-year training colleges,

¹ The success or failure of Scheme A depends on the attitude of the universities and while a few have shown themselves unwilling to fraternize or to shoulder this new responsibility, the majority have accepted the challenge with courage, faith and vigour.

local education authorities, and other institutions and parties interested in teacher training such as the practising teachers in the area, with representatives of the Ministry of Education present as observers. The Chairman of the Delegacy is nominated by the University Senate, and other members elected by the bodies and institutions concerned. This Delegacy will supervise and direct the training of all teachers in its area and is responsible for all matters pertaining thereto.

Professional matters are regulated by a Professional or Academic Board, consisting of representatives of the university and of the various constituent colleges, with two co-opted non-voting representatives from the Ministry of Education. This Board approves syllabuses, conducts examinations and supervises the internal functioning of the constituent colleges. It has the authority to appoint boards of studies for the various subjects; to set standards; to appoint examiners and to define their functions; and to set up expert committees to promote educational research, and the further education of teachers etc. Every institute has its own director, a number of tutors, and its own building which usually contains library, meeting rooms, common rooms and a canteen.

FUNCTIONS OF THE INSTITUTES OF EDUCATION

The seventeen institutes of education in the U.K. vary considerably in size—the University of London I. of E. has 37 constituent colleges and that of Oxford only 2—and in their manner of functioning, but underlying these healthy regional differences they have a common objective: to promote, by every means in their power, the preliminary and further education of all teachers in

their respective regions. They thus have a dual task to perform, preliminary training and further education.

The institutes are responsible firstly for the initial training of all teachers in their areas. They perform this task not by training the teachers themselves, or prescribing uniform regulations, syllabuses, methods, etc. for all constituent training institutions, but by helping these institutions to set up suitable courses and standards, by supervising the education and training given in them, and by planning and co-ordinating all the training facilities in the area. And when the teacher-trainees have completed their approved course of training in one of the member colleges, it is the institute that recommends them to the Ministry of Education for formal recognition as qualified teachers.

The institutes are also now responsible for the provision and co-ordination of all facilities for the further education of teachers in their respective areas. They fulfil this responsibility by acting as education centres where training college students, practising teachers, and the staffs of constituent colleges and of the institute itself can meet, discuss, read and study together, undertake joint research, and learn from one another at refresher courses, workshops, seminars, etc., organized by the institutes.

It is too early yet to estimate how much more effectively the new Institutes are discharging this dual function than did the Joint Boards and the other bodies like the L. E. A'S, Teachers' Associations, H.M.I., etc. which undertook these functions in the past. But most impartial observers agree that where they have shouldered their new responsibilities freely and gladly, the infant Institutes of Education have brought a breadth of new life into the training of teachers, and, by bringing together in a spirit of common endeavour all those associated with the training of teachers in their areas, have unified and appreciably improved general training standards,

especially of the undergraduate teachers, and raised the status of the teaching profession as a whole throughout the country.

THE UNIVERSITY INSTITUTES OF EDUCATION V. THE JOINT BOARDS

At this point the question may well be asked—How far are these new Institutes an advance on the Joint Boards? What are the main benefits it is hoped, will be realized from the new set-up, and how far are they being actually realized in practice? How particularly is the crucial relationship between the universities and two-year colleges affected, for better or worse, by the new set-up? We shall try to examine these questions in some detail. Under the Joint Boards the link between the universities and the two-year colleges was mainly an examination one, though under some Joint Boards the degree of co-operation was much closer. The new institutes of education not only provide an examination link but lay the foundation for a real and active partnership between them which should be of great mutual benefit to both. It is clear that the idea of separate and self-contained institutions must be abandoned. The problem is to retain the services of existing institutions in so far as they are and can be made efficient, to add other institutions which have a contribution to make and with the co-operation of those whose responsibilities entitle them to an interest in the matter, to weld the whole into an integrated training service. The crux of the matter is that under this scheme the university will be able to extend its liberalizing influence into the training colleges, which, in turn, will exert a beneficial influence on the rather general nature of the professional training given by most U.T.D's. The training colleges will not, for the most part, lose their identity or sacrifice their autonomy; they will be full and participating

members of a commonwealth, united by a flexible constitution in which the university will provide the unifying element, and the member colleges diversity within this unity.

All students in the U.T.D's and in the constituent colleges will thus be members of the same educative community which will have a university atmosphere; they will be granted a common certificate and enter the nation's schools as a united, devoted and well-educated profession. The quality of education depends on the quality of mind and spirit of the teachers, and these will be raised, especially in the case of the training college students by their bracing contact with the universities. In the past the staff and students of the two-year colleges were segregated from one another and from the U.T.D's; the new institutes of education will break down this isolation and bring them all into fruitful contact with one another in an intimate relationship which opens up endless possibilities for co-operation. Neighbouring training colleges can pool their resources and staff and thus provide for a greater variety and flexibility; outstanding members of the University Training Department or training college staffs can tour the other colleges and make their influence felt throughout the Institute. Specialist staff in drama, music, crafts etc. can be employed by the Institute to conduct short courses in the various colleges which might not be able to afford them as full-time members of the staff. Member colleges will be able to co-operate with each other and the U.T.D's in conducting research, and the results of experiments with curricula or methods or examinations which have proved successful in one institution can be communicated to the others. Finally, students from the training colleges may be encouraged to take part of their general education at the university, and students at the

U.T.D's part of their professional training at the two-year colleges.

(ii) Local education authorities, practising teachers in the schools and institutions such as art schools etc., which have always had a share in the preparation of teachers, will now become full and integral members of the new training structure. "Our scheme associates L.E.A's with the management of the institutes. It also provides for the co-operation of institutions which, though not primarily devoted to training, offer instruction and other facilities which are essential for the education of many teachers; and this instruction and these facilities will be recognized by the institutes." This closer relationship will enable institutions such as art schools etc. to play a much more vital and dynamic part in the education of teachers, particularly those at the two-year colleges, where greater emphasis is placed on practical and aesthetic subjects than at the U.T.D's. Contact with the university will in turn broaden the outlook of these specialized institutions and prevent them from turning out narrow technicians.

(iii) The universities will also be brought into closer contact with the schools they supply with their students and will be able to exert a more personal influence on them by equipping their teachers with the results of the most recent research into the field of education. For research will cease to be the solitary concern of lecturers in the U.T.D's and will become a function of the institutes as a whole, a co-operative seeking after truth by university professors, lecturers in the training colleges, and the teachers and children in the schools. This is perhaps one of the most valuable features of the new set-up. To quote a recent observer: "The hope of fruition (of the Institutes) lies in this, that every Institute will realize that the essence of its existence is

as an arm which a university reaches out to teachers in schools; that in addition to providing the academic and professional education of a minority of teachers, the universities have now committed themselves to active concern with the education of all teachers. For the Institute to succeed it will be no less necessary for the whole body of teachers to grasp these implications and the unprecedented opportunity they offer for the future of education."

(iv) The institutes will be social and cultural centres for all educational activities in their area and provide a unifying force to link them all together.

Considering all these factors, there is little doubt that the University Institutes of Education represent a decided advance on the old Joint Boards, and that in time they will achieve all that their sponsors hope from them and transform the face of teacher training in England. But in this new marriage between the universities and the training colleges there are certain difficulties to be overcome and pitfalls to be avoided, and conditions to be observed if the two main partners are to "live happily ever after." The university may be the senior partner in the new institutes, but it must not attempt to domineer over and impose its own peculiar ideals and traditions on the other partners. The two-year colleges have many valuable elements which must not be scrapped; their practical wisdom garnered from long and varied experience must complement and complete the more academic approach of the university. The predominating influence of the university must not therefore destroy the separate identity of the training colleges, but admit them to a full, if junior, partnership so that the training potentialities of both will be integrated and there will be a two-way traffic of ideas. The special needs of the training colleges must not be lost sight of; they should not

be made dependent on and subordinate to the universities but the life of both must be strengthened, broadened and brought into closer and more fruitful reciprocal relations. The new institutes of education should have variety and flexibility as their keynotes, and aim at a true "unity in diversity" instead of a rigid uniformity. They must not aim at turning out teachers only on the U.T.D. graduate pattern but must train all types of teachers, equally well but variously educated according to their special needs and abilities, to man the various types of schools for which provision has been made under the 1944 Act.

While the danger of being submerged and of losing their individuality is perhaps greater in the case of the two-year colleges and other member institutions of the institutes, it also exists for the universities. The chief functions of a university are to conserve, extend and pass on to succeeding generations the culture of a country. Professional education of various types, whether technical, medical or teaching is a subsidiary function, and must never be allowed to usurp the predominant place in university life and functioning. There is danger that the sudden influx of a large number of teachers into the universities under Scheme A may divert them from their main purpose and lead to a frittering away of their energies in what may be a laudable and necessary part of their work but is not their main *raison d'être*.

These dangers, however, are not inevitable pitfalls; provided they are kept clearly in the foreground and suitable precautions taken to avoid them, there is no reason why the University Institutes of Education should not go from strength to strength, blending, integrating, and harmonizing all the various elements into a true organic unit in which the university is the head but not the "head of the members", and in which every one of the members will preserve

his identity and make his own unique contribution to the good of the whole.

Theorizing on the possible advantages of the new institutes of education, however interesting, is of less value than studying an actual institute in action. Seventeen institutes have since 1947 been set up and have been working for periods ranging from 3 to 7 years. This is too short a period for a real or final assessment of their success or failure, but a study of a single institute "in the making" and in the light of future plans will not be without benefit. For this purpose the University of Bristol Institute of Education which the author had the pleasure of visiting and studying at first hand in the second year of its existence has been selected.

THE UNIVERSITY OF BRISTOL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

Though London was the first University to decide in favour of adopting Scheme A of the MacNair report, Bristol University was the first to set up in working order its Institute of Education. The Bristol Institute of Education was inaugurated in October 1947 and had been in operation for a little over two years when I visited it. This was too short a time in which to get going but much had been accomplished in the brief period of its existence. A Five-Year Plan drawn up by its Director, Prof. B. Fletcher and his associates, in which was mapped out the direction and scope of its future progress and development, enables us to get a fair idea of the nature, scope, potentialities and functions of the new institutes.

CONSTITUTION OF THE BRISTOL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

The institute consists of the University Department of Education, nine permanent colleges of great diversity and individuality, and four emergency training colleges.

It is governed by a Board of the Institute, a Professional Committee and an Executive Committee.

The Board of the Institute consists of representatives from the University, Training Colleges, Local Education Authorities, the Ministry of Education and of Teachers' Associations and other educational bodies in the University area. Its powers include the appointment of the Director and staff of the Institute, the drawing up of regulations, the appointment of external examiners, the management of financial and administrative affairs, and the review of the instruction and teaching given at the constituent colleges of the Institute. "The Board shall be responsible to the Senate and Council of the University for the finance of the Institute and either the Senate or the Council shall have the power to review, refer back, control, amend or disallow any act of the Board, and to give directions to the Board provided always nothing hereby contained shall prejudice the full internal financial autonomy of the associated institutions."

The Professional Committee under the chairmanship of the Director of the Institute consists of the Principals of associated institutions, four members of the academic staff of the university and four from the training college staff, together with two assessors appointed by the Ministry of Education. Its functions are to direct and co-ordinate instruction and education in the constituent colleges, to administer the examinations for the award of the Teacher's Certificate and the Diploma in Education, to appoint the internal and external examiners and to make recommendations to the Board of the Institute as to removal of any members of the staff of the Institute.

The Executive Committee also under the chairmanship of the Director consists of representatives of the local education

authorities, of the associated institutions, of the University, and of the Ministry of Education. Its functions are to co-ordinate staffing, to facilitate the interchange of staff and students among the associated colleges, to organize refresher courses and conferences and to develop an educational centre as a focus of the professional interest of practising teachers in the university area.

FUNCTIONS OF THE INSTITUTE

The object of the Institute, as defined in its ordinance is "the furtherance of the training of teachers, youth leaders, and others intending to engage in educational work and the advancement of education in the counties of Gloucestershire, Somerset and Wiltshire, and the cities of Bath, Bristol and Gloucester (hereafter called the University Area)."

The main function of the Institute is seen by its Director, Prof. Fletcher, to be a unifying and co-ordinating one, "it exists to strengthen the life and individuality of the associated colleges, and to give concrete expression to the developing ideas about education that are already a vital growth in this region."¹ This primary function has been subdivided into four minor but related functions: (i) to foster an appreciation of the essentials of the teaching profession; (ii) to be the responsible body for the initial training of teachers in the region; (iii) to provide a centre for the organization of research and other educational activities in the region; (iv) to assist in the further training of practising teachers in the region. Each of these aims was specially catered for in a Five-Year Plan proposed by its Director. In the first year the aim was "to develop all the functions and the

¹ Fletcher, "A Year's Work and Planning in an Area Training Organisation", *Bulletin of Education*, December 1948, p. 1.

activities in miniature; to advance the activities of the Institute on a broad front; to work out on a small scale but with a sense of totality."¹

In the four remaining years this broad approach would be maintained, but each of the four special functions listed above would be in turn the primary target for attack and development.

We shall now briefly review how the Bristol Institute of Education was endeavouring to bring about the achievement of each of its four main functions.

1. *Promotion of Unity in the Profession*: the Bristol Institute aims to promote such unity in its own region "to make students in its colleges, the teachers in the schools, and all others engaged in education in the area feel that they belong to a single great profession." The new Institute is proving a much better instrument for fostering such unity than the old Joint Board.

The old Board was too big to be a good executive body and yet too small to be fully representative. The new professional Committee of the Institute seems an excellent policy-making body and the Executive Committee very suitable for finding the practical means to give expression to policy. The very much larger Board of the Institute ensures that all interests are represented in the control and direction of the two Committees already mentioned.²

The representation on all these bodies of representatives of the universities, training colleges, L.E.A's, and the teachers in the schools is a constitutional recognition of the unity of the profession in the Bristol area and ensures that their several interests will not be lost sight of in the achievement of the larger unity. In fact the university authorities of

¹ Ibid. p. 1.

² Ibid. p. 3.

Bristol are particularly anxious to preserve the autonomy and individuality of the constituent colleges and have given them as large a measure of freedom in the management of internal affairs as is consistent with the interests of the larger unity.

The constitutional link is strengthened, and the machinery of the institute given life and vitality by stress on happy and fruitful personal relationships between staffs of the University, the U.T.D., training colleges, practising teachers and the L.E.A.'s. "House parties" bring them together frequently in the institute, or at one or the other of the associated colleges and promote a feeling of friendliness, understanding, co-operation, and joint endeavour that oils the wheels of the administrative machinery. Conferences, research work by teams of lecturers from different colleges and practising teachers, interchange of lecturers, refresher courses etc. unite them in co-operative study of common problems and make them realize the interdependence and the close relationship that must exist between the teachers in all types of schools and the training colleges if the work of the institute is to bear fruit. The unity that is thus being fostered is no mere formal unity but one which springs from the fact that each school and college recognizes it has a special and individual contribution to make to the whole and each individual teacher or lecturer in the region is helped to see how far his own work contributes to the common good. Unity is also being fostered at the student level between the students of U.T.D. and those of the other associated institutions. Students from one training college can take part of their training at another college, lecturers from one college visit and give short courses at other colleges, students meet each other at social functions organized by the associated colleges, and an Association of Education students of the Bristol Institute of

Education has been formed to promote the unity and common interests of education students in the Bristol area.

One of the best means of promoting unity is to have some sort of central building to serve as a focus for educational activities in the area. The MacNair Committee recommended that:

the main buildings of the school, separated possibly from the other University buildings, should be so equipped with libraries, conference rooms, and other amenities that it became the centre of the professional interests of the practising teachers in the area, and the place to which L.E.A's and other bodies concerned with education would look for accommodation and guidance in the matter of public lectures, conferences, discussion groups, exhibitions, and other means of promoting the interests of education.¹

Bristol has provided and partially equipped such an educational centre with a library and club facilities to serve as a meeting place for all connected with education in the area, a clearing house for educational ideas and plans, and a concrete means towards the promotion of unity in the area.

2. *University Responsibility for the Training of all Teachers:* the Institute, on the Board and various committees of which the University is prominently represented, is responsible for supervising and directing the training of all teachers in the Bristol area and awards them a common certificate at the end of their course of training which is recognized by the Ministry as a qualification to teach.

This does not mean the Institute dictates to, or that the University regulates and controls the internal working of the constituent colleges. On the contrary, they are at Bristol given almost complete autonomy in the management of

¹ *Teachers and Youth Leaders*, p. 105.

their internal affairs, the University playing the role of "a guide, philosopher and friend". Each college draws up its own syllabuses and submits them for approval to the professional committee, examines its own candidates with the help and under the supervision of external assessors appointed by the professional committee and sets its own standards, which, however, have to be approved by the Institute.

The Institute and its senior member, the University, discharge this responsibility for supervising the training of all teachers in the area by indirect influence and suggestions. Though examinations are largely internal and take the form of a process of continual assessment over the whole course of training, external examiners, drawn from the university and chosen by the colleges themselves help to maintain standards in each individual college, and between college and college. Each external examiner has a group of two or three colleges under his wing; it is his duty not only to supervise the final examination, but to visit the colleges in question two or three times a year to confer with the staff and watch the growth and progress of students.

The Institute also from time to time, like the Ministry of Education, issues "suggestions" to member colleges in which practices and methods found valuable in one college or the results of research are recommended for trial by others. The colleges are under no obligation to act on these suggestions but they are encouraged to do so, and, in fact, most of them are only too ready to test out new ideas and practical suggestions.

Conferences on various topics of common interest or the various subjects of the curriculum, general and professional, are also held from time to time as a result of which it is hoped colleges will be stimulated to review and revise curricula and methods in the light of the findings of research

and of changing conditions in the schools and in the society outside them. The old Boards of Studies which, under the Joint Boards, had the task of drawing up syllabuses and setting examinations, freed from these burdens are able to turn their attention to the more creative field of research into the subject matter and methods of teaching their respective subjects.

The Institute exerts no direct control over the appointment of staff in the constituent colleges, but the latter are advised to consult the Institute authorities in making new appointments, which have to be approved by the Board of the Institute. Indirect pressure over appointments is also exerted by the system of "recognized teachers" of the Institute, by which the staff of training colleges with appropriate qualifications are accepted as recognized teachers of the Institute, equal in status to University lecturers.

Thus in a variety of ways the Institute and the University authorities, while allowing the constituent colleges a very large measure of freedom to follow their own bent and develop according to the lines best suited to them, are exerting a powerful influence on them to improve their standards of staffing and equipment and the quality of the education and training given in them.

3. *Organization of Research*: research is the life-blood of educational progress. It is according to many writers the chief, if not the only, function of the University to promote and encourage research. Hence, research must be one of the main functions of university institutes of education which, being in a position to draw on and co-ordinate the resources of a university, training colleges of various types, and schools of all kinds, are peculiarly well fitted for this task. Prof. Gentile, the famous Italian philosopher and educationist, wrote some years ago:

The teacher is tempted to look upon knowledge as something quite finished, rounded off, enclosed in definite formulas, rules, laws, all of which have been ascertained once and for all, and no longer susceptible of revision. The remedy for this natural tendency in the teacher's mind is to be found where knowledge is presented not as ready-made but as enquiry and research.

The Bristol Institute aims to be such a place. Not only has it created a research centre with a full-time research officer and two part-time assistants who are carrying out a number of long-term researches in co-operation with other members of the Institute and teachers in the schools, but it also encourages small groups of lecturers from different colleges or the staffs of individual colleges to initiate and carry out experiments and research on their own under the guidance of the Research Centre and its permanent staff.

A good deal has been accomplished. The Institute besides co-ordinating all research in the region has also initiated and is pursuing some long-term projects of its own. These projects are under the general supervision of a Research Committee which has recommended that each of them should be guided by a separate research panel. Some of the topics into which long-term research has already begun are: a study of the problems relating to the transition from school to work — an educational, psychological and sociological study; aims, curricula and methods of training youth leaders; the transition from the primary to the secondary schools, and the value of the present selection procedures; school textbooks; the place of Domestic Science in the school curriculum; viz. certain aspects of the selection and training of teachers, and the creative activities of young children.

These researches were started and directed by the Research Centre, but with the collaboration of lecturers in the training colleges and teachers in the school.

A number of "team researches" are also being carried out in which the emphasis is more on the work of teams of teachers and less on central investigation. These fall into two groups; the first group related to work in schools, such as the research now in progress into the teaching of English in which training college lecturers and teachers in schools are co-operating, and another into the methods of teaching foreign languages to students of non-academic type; and the second those related to work in the training colleges, e.g. a critical examination of the present method of selection and assessment of training college students.

In addition to specific research projects a number of general research activities are carried out, such as a lecture course on the methods and techniques of educational research, a weekly research colloquium in which a research paper is read and discussed, the provision of a research library and an advisory service for teachers at the Research Centre, and a publication of research bulletins in which are the results that are likely to be of practical value, in a simplified form for teachers and administrators. Finally, there are in progress a number of individual short-term researches in connexion with work for the Diploma of the Institute, or for the M.A. degree in Education.

Most of this research has not been started *in vacuo* but to meet outside demands for practical solutions to specific problems. "The difficulty in fact," states Prof. Fletcher, "has been not so much to find research problems, but to arrange those presented in some order of priority, and then to limit the field of work to practical proportions." Nearly always such research undertaken involves the co-operation of lecturers from the universities and training colleges and teachers from the schools; it thus serves as a vital link between them in the common pursuit of truth.

4. *Provision of In-service Education*: the Institute does not forget the young teacher after he has taken up his first post. It provides various types of courses for teachers and lecturers in service. As a further educational qualification, teachers, after three to five years in the school, may take the Diploma in Education or one in Child Study. It will be possible to qualify for them by whole or part-time study, by examination or by a contribution to research. The Institute has also run special courses of lectures for training college lecturers, and other short time courses on social study and religious education for teachers in the various schools. Of special interest is the fact that the social study course took the form of a "workshop" in which a group of teachers came together to study, under expert guidance, a set of problems in which they had a common interest instead of being provided with a set course.

Teachers in the past had common problems on which they worked in isolation from one another. The Institute enables them to make a concerted attack on these and further makes possible the cross-fertilization of theory and practice. But it is essentially a place where teachers in colleges in service and all types of institutions can meet and be friends, and from their happy personal relationships and growing sense of solidarity education in the Bristol area is bound to benefit.

Such briefly are some of the ways in which the Bristol University Institute of Education is endeavouring to fulfil its responsibilities and to realize in some measure the high ideals set before it and similar institutions by the MacNair Committee. By a variety of approaches and methods it is attempting to unify the entire teaching profession in its area, to raise its status, to improve the quality of its education and training, to safeguard its rights, dignity and privileges,

to bring together university lecturers, training college staffs, practising teachers and administrators in the common task of promoting the progress of education in the Bristol area and in the country as a whole. Similar university institutes in London, at Nottingham, at Birmingham and other university towns are collecting all available resources round the common focus of their respective universities, and aiming, in their own way, at a similar goal.

The good work has begun and a new and revolutionary chapter in the history of the training of teachers in England and of the world is in the process of being written. What of the future of the institutes? It is difficult to say but the writer is personally convinced that it will be a glorious one, that the British Institutes of Education will serve as a model and inspiration to all those concerned with the education of teachers not only in the U.K. but all the world over, for to quote a recent article in the *Times Educational Supplement* "they bear within themselves the seeds of great promise for the enhancement of the professional competence and status of teachers."

PART TWO

TRAINING FOR TEACHING
IN INDIA

J. N. CHATTERJEE
M.A., T.D. (LOND.)

TO ALL TEACHERS
UNDER TRAINING AND IN SERVICE

CHAPTER XII

THE PAST

It is interesting to note that for a long time, even after the value of teachers' training was authoritatively recognized, its main sphere was considered to be primary education. It was only in recent years, with an increasing realization of the necessity of the professional training of teachers by all concerned, as well as the great improvement achieved in the nature of the training itself, that it has established a place for itself in all spheres of school education.

In India, too, the training of the teacher has had quite a recent beginning. Generally speaking, it is still at a very elementary stage, and the idea is yet strange and vague to most persons outside the educational profession. In the past, the training of teachers was unknown. This is not to say that no good or efficient teachers ever existed; far from it, for one hears of capable, learned and highly respected preceptors who could infuse in their pupils their own scholarship and enlightened outlook. But there was no question of professional training, and these teachers owed their skill to "natural gifts or the influence of a good teacher under whom they studied in their childhood or to family tradition."¹

One particular feature of the system of education prevailing in India before the British days deserves special mention, as it can be called a sort of apprenticeship in the vocation of school teaching. From very early times, there existed a practice that the senior pupils in a big school were employed in instructing younger children, under the guidance of their teacher. The practice was not followed

¹ K. G. Saiyidain & Others, *Compulsory Education in India*, U.N.E.S.C.O., p. 12.

on systematic lines, and was often merely a means of convenience; but it came down from the distant past, and survived the sweeping changes which the country had seen throughout the course of its history, so that it was still in existence when the British rule was established. It so impressed Dr. Andrew Bell during his work in Madras that he had no hesitation in introducing it in England, as an easy and efficient method of spreading education among the children of the masses. The practice became known as the monitorial or Madras system. This is a matter of no small import concerning our old form of school instruction; for though, at the end of the Mughal rule, social and economic life in this country, including its educational activity, was completely broken down, yet Dr. Bell found in it a method which he considered effective and valuable enough to be adopted in England, which was then one of the most progressive countries of the world.

The practice of imparting systematic training to teachers, however, is of very recent origin in this country, and its first advent in India was during the British rule. One of the earliest references made to it was by William Adam in his famous report. His recommendations, however, were unofficial, and produced no tangible result. Indeed, little official attention was given to the matter until the publication of Wood's *Education Dispatch* of 1854. The missionary educationists, it must be said to their credit, had already started some work in teachers' training, which, though small in amount, was proving quite useful. In Bengal, Alexander Duff had started his first Normal school. Originally intended for the training of the missionary school teachers, it soon supplied some good teachers to other schools, too. It was soon followed by similar missionary institutions in other places. In Bombay, the Native Education

Society patronized by Lord Elphinstone also made some arrangement for training teachers for its own schools.

The *Dispatch* of 1854 made a pointed reference to the scarcity of schoolmasters with proper qualifications and the imperfect methods of teaching prevailing in the schools. It recommended the establishment, with as little delay as possible, of training schools and classes in each province of India. It advocated the introduction of the English pupil-teacher system in this country. This was a scheme, devised in England by Kay-Shuttleworth in 1846, in which intending teachers were selected while at school and awarded stipends; and if they were found satisfactory, they were given training at the end of their school course in teachers' training institutions. The *Dispatch* also insisted that the attractions of the teaching profession should be such that the right type of persons should come forward to work as school teachers.

Despite these clear-cut suggestions, no immediate progress followed. There was no planned work, and the inadequacy of financial provision was the major stumbling block. The Secretary of State's *Dispatch* of 1859, marking the transfer of power to the Crown, observed, "The institution of training schools does not seem to have been carried out to the extent contemplated." These solemn words naturally created a stir and brought about some amount of activity. In Bengal, the Circle System had already been introduced, employing peripatetic instructors for the school teachers of a circle of three or four villages. Along with these, Normal schools were soon started. Their standards, necessarily, were quite low, and the courses usually included reading, writing, arithmetic, mensuration, elementary history and geography, and the art of teaching. These grew up in every part of India.

In Bengal and Madras, the primary schools were mostly conducted privately. So in their case, the problem of training teachers was much greater than in provinces like Bombay or the Central Provinces, where the majority of the schools were run by Government; for their teachers were a selected body of men, with a fairly good education and ready besides to undergo training in consideration of the better prospects ensured by it. The position in this respect was most unsatisfactory in Bengal where the number of schools and that of the teachers serving in them was by far the largest. In 1874, Sir George Campbell, the Lieutenant-Governor, put up a scheme for setting up new Normal schools locally for the training of all primary teachers in service; but it had to be given up soon, being both "costly and ineffective". In Madras, the Normal schools fared much better, and in Bombay and the Central Provinces, where, as we have seen, conditions were already favourable, as also in the North-Western Province (or U.P.) and the Punjab, we find a fairly high percentage of trained primary teachers. In the whole of India, in 1882, there were 106 Normal schools training 3,886 teachers.

The Indian Education Commission of 1882 paid special attention to the training of primary school teachers. It advocated a wider expansion of the Normal schools, and laid particular emphasis on a policy of localizing them on the basis of the needs of the outlying area; it recognized the fact that "the success of an indigenous school has often been mainly due to the fact that the master was a member of the village-community." It recommended that Normal schools should be established not at a few centres but they should be widely distributed throughout the country, and that "the supply of Normal Schools, whether Government or aided, be so localized as to provide for the local

requirements of all primary schools." For financial provision, it recommended that "the first charges on provincial funds assigned for primary education be the cost of its direction and inspection, and the provision of an adequate supply of Normal Schools."¹

The recommendations of the Commission were undoubtedly of great value. They were based on a correct study of the actual needs of our schools, and were inspired by actual experiences in England where the training of elementary teachers had made quite commendable progress in the preceding years. But some of the proposals, and especially the financial aspect of them, were not well defined. They transferred the control of primary education to local authorities, and so also the training of its teachers for which a fund was to be created out of the local resources and aided by the provincial governments. But there was no proviso that the latter must discharge their financial obligation adequately; and, in fact, their contributions showed very little increase in the twenty years to follow. Thus, the training of primary teachers advanced at a slow pace; some new Normal schools were started here and there as funds permitted, but the provision for training all teachers or even the majority of them still remained a far-off dream. One highly relieving feature, however, was that the idea of training was slowly gaining a hold upon the people, many of whom had formerly shown their aversion to it; and by the end of the century, the general condition of the primary teachers was certainly better. They were better educated and in many cases better paid, and the percentage of trained men in the profession, who used kindergarten and other new methods in their teaching, increased.

The training of secondary teachers was a much later

¹ Nurullah and Naik, *History of Education in India*, p. 353.

development. Official opinion in this country was bound to be guided by ideas prevalent in England; and at that period most educationists there saw little necessity of training secondary teachers, as their view was that a sound and comprehensive mastery over the subject-matter would lead naturally to a grip over the method. It may be noted here incidentally that the leading institutions for secondary institutions in England, the renowned public schools, even to this day have not cared much whether their masters are trained or not as long as they possess good honours-degrees from their older universities.

The first institution to train secondary teachers was the Government Normal School in Madras, opened in 1856, and later called the Teachers' College. A similar institution was also established in Lahore in 1880. These were the only two training centres for secondary teachers in existence when the Indian Education Commission was appointed in 1882. The two together trained about 60 students, both undergraduates and graduates. On account of the general lack of enthusiasm in Secondary Training, the Commission did not take any serious view of this matter. It simply recommended that an examination in teaching should be introduced, success in which should be made a condition for employment in secondary schools, and that for graduates, the course of training in Normal schools should be of shorter duration than for others. The training of secondary teachers in the following years, as might well be expected, proceeded quite slowly; and in 1902, there were six training colleges, besides a number of secondary training schools. The provincial governments had also instituted a certificate examination for secondary teachers.

As for the training of women teachers in these early days, although the education of women began slowly with the

reforms introduced by the *Dispatch* of 1854, no initiative was taken by the authorities to train women teachers. As in the case of men, the credit for organizing the first training schools for women goes, too, to the Christian missionaries. Women began to join these institutions in increasing numbers, and the number of women receiving training in 1882 was 515. But on account of the admittedly religious zeal of these missionary institutions, Hindus, as well as Mohammedans, were not eager to send their girls to them, or even to the missionary primary schools. So the women teachers trained in these institutions at this period were usually Christians.

A signal service to the cause of women's education in India, and particularly the training of women teachers, was rendered at this time by the renowned English social worker, Mary Carpenter, who came out to India in 1866. She realized that the greatest need in the field of women's education in the country was that of qualified women teachers. It was very difficult to secure teachers for girls' schools even with the most meagre educational attainments; for girls who were admitted to schools usually left as soon as they grew a little older, long before they achieved any reasonable standard of education. Miss Carpenter not only moved the Government to open training schools for women teachers, but also succeeded to some extent in obtaining unofficial Indian co-operation to her proposals, so that they would send their daughters for training. The task of the early training institutions was not easy. They had to work with caution, in order to win public interest and sympathy in their favour. Most of the women who sought admission had very little education, and the training colleges had no other way but to admit them notwithstanding their gross academic deficiency. No minimum entrance requirement

could be laid down in the earlier days, and even when it was done afterwards, the standard had to be kept very low. Thus the training institutions had first to complete the school education of their pupils before training them up as teachers. In order to encourage women to receive training, in many places, men primary teachers were induced to send their wives to training schools, and later both of them were appointed as teachers in the same place. The Indian Education Commission, realizing the difficulty of recruiting suitable women teachers, advocated the introduction of the pupil-teacher system wherever possible, and recommended that girls studying in schools should be offered special inducements to become trained and take up teaching as a profession. No large-scale improvement, however, was achieved for some years, although the training institutions for women were slowly acquiring popularity. Thus at the beginning of the century, there was a total of 1,412 women students under training. Yet non-Christians numbered only about 30 per cent, and the scarcity of able and qualified women teachers was still very great.

During the first two decades of the present century, we find the first noticeable progress in the training of teachers, both in quality and in quantity. This improvement could be seen in the training for all types of teaching, but it was greatest in the sphere of male primary teachers. The idea of training was slowly gaining a hold on the people of the middle classes, who were growing more alive to the educational backwardness of the land. When the Indian Education Commission, in 1882, had advocated the adoption of large-scale measures for teachers' training, the authorities did not show much activity; but now they took up the matter in right earnest. This was largely due to the influence of Lord Curzon. It is curious that Curzon,

most unpopular as a Governor-General, owing to his disparaging and provoking utterances and his unfriendly attitude to our nationalistic aspirations, who said that primary education was "to correct some of the inherent defects of the Indian intellect,"¹ should have made some really valuable contributions to Indian education. As regards the training of teachers, he made a study of school education in India, and strongly emphasized the need for a much larger number of training schools for primary teachers. He insisted that the period of training should be extended to two years, as one year was not enough, especially for teachers of poor education. Advocating the wider and more effective use of kindergarten methods and object lessons, he also offered the valuable suggestion that rural primary teachers should further be trained in elementary agriculture. He strongly advised differentiation in the methods and curriculum of rural and urban schools. His instructions were only imperfectly recognized by the educational authorities, and were not properly worked out; but they could not be without their effect, carrying, as they did, his official authority; and a period of expansion followed.

The authorities were beginning to recognize the training of primary teachers as their own responsibility. So, a large number of training schools were started by the Government, in localities which had a demand for them. It also encouraged the establishment of such institutions by local and private bodies, and rendered considerable financial aid to them for the purpose. Thus in 1922, there were 1,072 training institutions for men and women, with a total enrolment of nearly 27,000 students, compared with the figures of 106 training schools and 3,886 students in 1882; this was good progress. Also, out of a total of about 181 thousand primary

¹ Nurullah and Naik, op. cit., p. 445.

téachers, considerably over 67 thousand, or about 38 per cent were trained. The proportion of trained teachers was higher in Government schools, and lower in private ones. It has to be borne in mind, however, that the attainment of training did not signify any satisfactory standard of general education and proficiency, and the quality of training and training institutions, too, varied widely throughout the country. In general, the educational attainments of the ordinary primary teachers were exceedingly poor, not being enough, in many cases, to enable them to derive proper benefit from the training which they received. The training which they were given, also, often left much to be desired. The nature, contents and duration of the training course, the minimum education required for admission, the number and quality of the teaching, differed greatly from place to place, and were frequently quite unsatisfactory. Of the different provinces, conditions were somewhat better in Bombay and Madras, where the percentage of schoolgoing children was also higher. In Madras, although privately conducted schools were more numerous, as previously noted, the primary teachers, on the whole, were better educated than in most other provinces. Its training schools were classified into higher elementary institutions, admitting candidates who passed the middle-school examination, and lower elementary ones for those who had completed the upper primary course; and the training lasted for two years. In Bombay, most of the primary schools were run by the local bodies and here, too, the general type of the teachers was better than elsewhere. Students were usually enrolled for training after passing the upper primary examination, and the training period was three years, with intervals. In Bengal, the number of primary schools was very high, but the quality and condition of teachers were poor. Most of

the schools in the province were privately conducted, and the education of the teachers in many of them was quite meagre. The training that they received was usually a polishing up of their general education, with a little instruction in the subjects of professional training. The quinquennial *Review of Education*, 1917-22, thus describes the actual position:

By holding out the bribe of a stipend, and perhaps by the use of some thinly veiled compulsion, there are gathered in the *guru* training schools a number of teachers whose knowledge of the subjects they teach is little above that of the unfortunate taught. Here they attempt, in one year or in two to go through the whole upper primary or middle vernacular course with a top-dressing of the Art and Theory of Teaching superadded.¹

In Bihar and Orissa, where the number of schools and schoolchildren was much less than in Bengal, the general education of the teachers was still very poor. To improve the quality of the teachers, training courses were instituted here for students who had passed the middle-school examination; this course was for one year, and those who possessed lower qualifications had to attend a training course of two years. In the Punjab, too, students who had been successful at the middle-school examination were trained in a course lasting a year. In the United Provinces, a novel system of attaching small training centres to selected schools was tried. The classes were small, but the entire task of training was entrusted to a single instructor of no outstanding ability; and the experiment did not prove successful. The size of the training institutions in different places, too, showed no uniformity. At one extreme were the small, one-teacher training schools of the United Provinces, while, at the other, were the large training institutions of Bombay or the Central

¹ Ibid. p. 547.

Provinces, having 150 students on their rolls. Many of these big institutions, situated in cities, could not produce good results, because the students receiving training in them were detached from rural conditions, in which most of them had subsequently to work. The importance of maintaining a living touch between the training school and the community, especially villagers, has been fully recognized, as we shall see later, in Basic education. But it was quite neglected at this period, and so the training of teachers was often artificial and ineffective. The fact was that a wide gulf separated the educational authorities from the life of the people. Absence of understanding between the educational administrators and the masses, particularly the rural people, was bound to have its adverse effect on the educational system as a whole, and this was reflected on the work of the training schools, too. The purpose would have been better served if training institutions of a moderate size had been established to meet the need of each district, so that training could be properly co-ordinated with local conditions.

By the Montagu-Chelmsford reforms, education came in 1919 under the provincial ministers. Public opinion was growing increasingly alive to the problem of mass illiteracy; and though the Congress, the largest political party, decided not to contest the elections, the new ministers put forth a creditable attempt to spread education in the country. Education Acts were passed everywhere; local authorities were instructed to undertake development of education and to make suitable provision for training teachers for the purpose. The expansion in education was undoubtedly rapid and great; but there was no corresponding improvement in the teaching itself. A very important committee, appointed at this time under the chairmanship of Sir Philip

Hartog, strongly criticized the instruction in primary schools and pointed out the defective quality of the teachers. It said that their education was bad, their training defective and inadequate, and the proportion of trained teachers, too, was small; all of which were responsible for the poor results achieved in schools. The Hartog Committee has been criticized as being too eager to condemn the qualitative progress in education made by the Indian ministers, working against heavy odds. But there is no doubt that in the staffing of the rapidly growing primary schools, especially in rural areas, there was yet much to be desired, both in education and efficiency. The percentage of trained teachers in the primary schools, as found by the Committee, was only 44 per cent, and the average monthly salary being as low as Rs 8/6/- in Bengal, was not attractive enough to draw capable persons to teaching work. The Committee recommended that the educational standard of the primary teachers should be raised, the training courses should be reformed and lengthened in duration and there should be more adequate and efficient staff in the training schools, as also suitable arrangements for refresher courses and conferences.

The Report of the Hartog Committee, though unpopular among the public in India, became the guiding principle in official activity. So the earlier programme of expansion was dropped. In spite of this, however, the contemplated improvement in quality was not achieved. The quality and conditions of teachers were not improved. The number of training institutions, and that of students attending them, actually showed a decrease at first, though it was balanced by a considerable increase in the training of women. As regards the proportion of trained teachers, the position was better, and the percentage rose to 57 in 1937 as against 44 a decade

back. There were some improvements in the courses of studies in training schools, and attempts were being made to attract better people for training as teachers.

Turning to the sphere of secondary teachers, we find that after its slow beginning traced earlier, secondary training, too, began to move up early in the present century. In it, as in primary teachers' training, the lead was given by Lord Curzon. In his *Resolution on Educational Policy*, 1904, he insisted that the supply of trained secondary teachers should be increased and their standard, too, should be improved. His instructions were both valuable and practical, and they covered all aspects of the question. He emphasized that the staff of the training colleges should be well qualified, and the quality of training should be keyed up. The duration of training, as he suggested, should be extended to two years for non-graduates who would require some polishing up of their general education along with a mastery of the theory and practice of teaching; for graduates, who would receive only the latter, the course might be for one year. There should be closer association of theory with practice, and for this purpose, good practising schools should be attached to training colleges. A living connexion should be kept up between the training college and the schools, so that the trained teacher, when he entered his service, should practise the methods which he had learnt in course of his training. These views strongly expressed by Lord Curzon created a new movement in the training of teachers of secondary schools; new training colleges, including the Secondary Training College in Bombay, founded in 1906, and the David Hare Training College in Calcutta, in 1908, came into being. In staff and equipment, they far surpassed the existing institutions of their kind. In 1913, the Government supplied a further impetus, by

declaring that eventually no teacher should be allowed to teach without a certificate of qualification as a teacher. It was, also, decided that the training colleges should be improved and multiplied, so that trained teachers in larger numbers should be available for private high schools. The Calcutta University Commission, appointed in 1916, although it dealt chiefly with the Calcutta University, studied educational problems common to all the provinces, and gave the suggestion that the output of trained secondary teachers should be raised, and that education should be a prescribed subject for the Intermediate and B.A. examinations, as a quick means of increasing the number of persons above the secondary school level possessing professional qualifications as teachers. In 1922, the number of training colleges rose to 13, besides a number of training schools for secondary teachers. The total output still remained inadequate, and the great majority of secondary teachers, especially in private schools, were still untrained. There was great disparity in the proportion of trained teachers in the different provinces: the position was quite good in the Punjab, Madras, the Central Provinces, Bombay and the United Provinces; in Bengal and Bihar and Orissa, it was very backward. Still, the move for training secondary teachers had started. The Hartog Committee, reporting in 1929, expressed its general appreciation of the work done in secondary teachers' training in the preceding years; but it pointed out that there was a great deal of disparity in the nature of instruction given in the training colleges of the different provinces. Some of them used progressive and intelligent methods and succeeded in turning out some good and capable teachers, while others carried on along conventional and obsolete lines. It also strongly recommended that the pay and conditions of service of the teachers should

be bettered. Some improvement was effected on these lines; the salaries and rules of service were revised in most of the provinces, and some persons of better educational attainments and ability were entering the profession. There was a gradual, if slow, increase in the output of trained teachers. Thus within 15 years there was an appreciable improvement in their number in the secondary schools of all the provinces; the highest was in the Punjab, Madras and Delhi, where the percentage was more than 80, and the general average percentage was about 57.

As regards women teachers, too, the position began to improve with the advance of this century. More and more women were receiving education in the high schools and colleges, so that the acute difficulty experienced previously in finding suitable teachers for work in schools grew less. As the number of women going in for higher education rose, there was also a decided increase, too, in the number of those who joined training schools to qualify themselves as teachers. Thus, in 1902, the number of women under training rose to 4,391, as against 1,412 in 1902 and only 515 in 1882. The Calcutta University Commission, and particularly the Hartog Committee, recommended that special attention should be paid to the training of women teachers, as regards quality as well as quantity. It was suggested that their difficulties regarding pay and other matters should be removed, so that larger numbers of women received training and became teachers, especially in rural areas. A steady improvement was maintained, and there was an increase in the number of training schools as also in their enrolments. The proportion of non-Christians among them also rose appreciably; thus it was 58 per cent of the total in 1937, whereas it was less than 30 per cent at the beginning of the century. The political awakening of

the country under Mahatma Gandhi's leadership added great strength to the movement for the education of women.

The position in 1937, then, can be thus summed up. In the whole of India and Burma, the percentage of trained men teachers was near about 57, both in primary and secondary schools. The number of primary training institutions was 346, with an enrolment of 19,742; secondary training institutions numbered 15, with 1,488 students, including 147 women students studying in them. For women, there were 217 primary training institutions, with 7,609 on their rolls, and 8 secondary training institutions, with 448 students under training.

This period may be regarded as the turning point in our educational development. Mighty events followed, in quick succession, and brought a different and wider field of educational activity before us.

CHAPTER XIII

THE PRESENT

WE HAVE traced the progress of teachers' training from its very start to the dawning of the present era. This review should be considered necessary for a proper understanding of the existing position. We are confronted with the task of educational reconstruction in free India now, and for this, a sufficient number of fully qualified and trained teachers is the first vital necessity. For a solution of this problem, it is essential to start with an idea of how it was tackled in the past. We must study carefully the schemes and arrangements devised by the previous educational authorities, and note how far they could fulfil the desired objective; we should also examine their defects, analysing how far and to what extent they fell short of their goal. No one would fail to notice that the provisions were highly inadequate, not only in teachers' training, but in the entire educational system. Also, many of the suggestions and measures were very valuable, but their execution was far from systematic and wholehearted. Absence of contact between the educational administrators and the people was another serious defect which held back progress.

The story of the next ten years is to be treated as the prelude to the present position. It was a very eventful period in our recent history. After the inauguration of provincial autonomy in 1937, the second World War broke out in 1939, throwing the entire world into confusion. Then there was country-wide agitation in India for the withdrawal of British power, to be followed by the partition and the final attainment of independence. Immediately after their assumption of office, the provincial Congress ministers started work with boldness and determination, and initiated

important educational reforms; the origination of Gandhiji's Basic Scheme was the memorable educational event of this time. But shortly after the outbreak of the War, the activities of the Congress ministers were cut short as they resigned office, after holding it for less than three years. For a few years, as far as our British rulers were concerned, consideration of the War eclipsed all other matters, whereas the intense struggle for political freedom engaged the entire attention and energy of our national leaders. Naturally, education did not receive necessary support from any quarter.

(The idea of Basic education was formulated by Mahatma Gandhi in 1937. Its essential feature is, as everyone knows now, that education is conceived as a realistic, purposeful process, to be centred round a basic craft. Further, Gandhiji conceived it as a financially self-supporting plan; for he felt that it was the only practical measure for the universal expansion of education in a poor land like ours, which was further handicapped at the time by the loss of revenue due to the insistence on prohibition by the Congress.) The new scheme was zealously tried in the Congress-governed provinces and Kashmir, and after a short break, when the Congress ministers went out of office, was resumed in fuller measure again in the changed administrative setting. The scheme has undergone some modifications in course of its trial, although its fundamental principle remains the same. It has now passed the experimental stage, and is being executed all over the country, the details being worked out variously in different States according to prevailing circumstances.

This new education could not be imparted by the ordinary teacher. So provision had to be made from the very start to train teachers especially for it. The first institution for the training of Basic teachers, the Vidyamandhi Training

School, was opened in Wardha in 1938; it was shortly followed by the Basic training course inaugurated at the Jamia Millia Institute in Delhi. Within a short time, a number of training centres were opened in all parts of the country where Basic education had spread. This work of training Basic teachers is now going on in full swing, and an account of it will be given in due course.

The British Government, just before the end of its rule in India, published an important educational document on Post-War Educational Development, commonly known as the Sargent Report, after Dr. John Sargent who presided over the Committee which drew it up. The Report is the first comprehensive plan of Indian education, dwelling on every aspect of it, including universal primary or Basic education, and formulates a long-term scheme extending over forty years for its complete execution and involving a total expenditure of over 300 crores of rupees. Regarding the recruitment and training of teachers, the Plan presents an expansion scheme to be worked in thirty-five years. It gives valuable suggestions regarding the nature and period of training, the selection of candidates for admission, their qualifications, the encouragement of Refresher Courses and higher research in education, and many other questions; and it emphasizes the need for the improvement of the teaching personnel, as also the betterment of their salaries and amenities. As a scheme covering, for the first time, every sphere of our education, it is highly commendable; but its chief drawback, according to Indian opinion, is the long time-limit set by it. For this reason, as also owing to the political changes which followed its publication, the Plan has been approved merely as a guiding principle, and no serious attempt has been made to put it into operation.

With the advent of independence, the Central and State

Governments have prepared educational development plans for shorter terms, which are less ambitious and elaborate but more practicable, and are executing them. Special mention may be made of the Kher Committee, appointed in 1947, which prepared a scheme for compulsory Basic education in 16 years. The activities in the different States differ rather widely according to existing conditions, but are similar in the main principle; and they all envisage an early introduction of compulsory Basic education within definite time-limits, as well as widespread measures for training teachers for the purpose. The Central Government has also a scheme of its own for dealing with some special branches of education, with a provision for the higher training of teachers. /

With the foregoing introductory survey, let us look more closely at the situation as it exists at present. The beginning is a very recent one, if indeed, it can be called a beginning; and the progress is still quite inadequate. The authorities in the last few years have been acutely conscious of the problem of the training of teachers. A special committee of the Central Advisory Board on the training and service of teachers, in its report submitted in 1946, expressed the opinion, in very strong terms, that all teachers in every type of school must be trained. It stipulated that: /

steps should be taken without delay to provide the necessary training facilities in order that all entrants to the teaching profession after a given date, which should be in the reasonably near future, shall have the minimum training hereinafter prescribed, and they recommended that Provincial Governments should take such measures as may be necessary to compel local bodies to comply with this requirement so far as any schools under their control are concerned.¹

At present, Basic education, which has been adopted

¹ Report, p. 3.

everywhere requires that only teachers trained in its special technique and outlook should be entrusted to impart it; this, too, has supplied great strength to the demand for the training of teachers.

The quinquennial *Review of Education*, 1947-52, mentions that educational expansion in many parts of the country has been seriously hampered by the dearth of qualified and trained teachers. Serious attempts have been made in some places to meet the shortage by opening numerous new training institutions, chiefly Basic ones, as also by the institution of in-service training, shortened courses and other devices. We may briefly review the nature of the work done in some of the States.

Bombay has always been quite advanced in the training of its teachers, and the progress made during the last few years, too, has been quite satisfactory. Since 1947-48, compulsory primary education has been introduced in all villages with populations of 1,000 or more, and the ultimate objective of the Government is to run all the primary schools itself; so the work of training teachers is being carried out in earnest. Many additional facilities for training and revised courses have been provided to meet the demand for teachers. The total number of training schools, for men and women, was 101, including 17 Basic ones, as against a total of only 32 in 1937. The number of students receiving training was 11,493, more than double the number of five years before, and about six times that of 1937. Three graduate Basic training colleges were also started, to give higher training in the theory and practice of Basic education.

In West Bengal, which has been backward in teachers' training in contrast with Bombay, some progress has been achieved in recent years, particularly in the training of Basic teachers. Since the introduction of Basic education

in the State, the Basic training schools are replacing training schools of the traditional type, of which the number as well as enrolments have fallen, and Basic training institutions and their students are on the increase. Their number in 1948 was 11, with 535 students on their rolls; the number of the older training schools was 42, with an enrolment of 888. (Two Basic training colleges, one for men and the other for women, were also started in 1948: the latter was subsequently closed down, but the establishment of a few more in the near future is contemplated. All students under training in the primary and Basic training schools, as also the Basic training colleges, receive stipends. For university training there are five colleges and centres affiliated to the Calcutta University; the number of students at these was 470 in 1951, which was about two and a half times the number four years before. The Calcutta University has also instituted a course for the M.A. degree in education. Besides these, Viswa Bharati, recently created a separate university under the control of the Central Government, has its own teachers' training arrangements, both for graduates and undergraduates. The Corporation of Calcutta set a record among the municipal administrations of the country by establishing, nearly 30 years ago, a well-equipped training institution of its own for the considerable number of teachers serving in its free primary schools. These teachers are better paid than the ordinary primary teacher in India, and their quality is also much superior, many of them being university graduates and even possessing Masters' degrees. The Government has given an impetus to the voluntary training of secondary teachers by offering special salary-benefits to trained hands.

In Bihar, Basic education has made good progress, and well-organized attempts to train teachers on a large scale

have been undertaken. The teachers' training institutions are steadily growing in number in the rural areas and each of them has a group of villages within its radius. It serves as their centre of culture and helps in the training of village leaders. The total number of teachers for Basic schools, all trained, rose in five years from 235 to 3,326 in 1952; there were 19 Basic training schools and 1 Basic training college.

In Madras, some earnest attempts have been made to improve the training of secondary school teachers. The B.T. syllabus has been revised, offering greater scope for practical work and training. The number of training colleges was 14 in 1952, as against 6 in 1947. Basic training made its progress, too, and retraining in Basic education was given to primary as well as secondary teachers.

In Rajasthan, it was decided to double the intake of the university training schools, and to open six new ones. In Travancore, 39 institutions with an enrolment of 1,399, increased to 56, with 2,146. The figures for other parts also show improvement; and although we are still far from achieving all that has to be achieved, widespread enterprise in teachers' training has now started.

As has already been observed, the types of training institutions existing in different parts of India and the courses followed in them have all along shown a wide range of variety, and it still persists today. In the first place, we have the training institutions for primary and middle-school teachers. These are being slowly replaced by the Basic training schools, preparing teachers for the new Basic schools which are spreading everywhere; as it is the aim of the authorities that all education in the country should ultimately be brought under the Basic Scheme, the position of the Basic training institutions is of great importance. Then, for secondary education, there are institutions which organize

degree courses in teaching and are attached to universities; they have their counterpart in the post-graduate Basic training colleges which institute advanced courses of Basic teachers' training, and prepare teachers for the Basic training schools as well as future recruitments for inspecting and similar other staff. In actual practice, however, these distinctions are not always rigidly maintained in the appointment of teachers; thus we often come across a person with one of the junior training qualifications teaching in a high school, and it is not unusual, especially in big cities like Calcutta, to find teachers with university B.T. degrees serving in primary schools.

In the institutions for the training of primary teachers, which along with the newly formed Basic training schools, are responsible for the training of teachers for the majority of the schoolchildren, the standard of minimum educational attainment is still quite inadequate in most cases. It is not so miserably low as in the past, when, as has been noted, intending teachers came up for training with general education hardly better than that their primary school pupils possessed. Still, even in recent years, a schooling up to Class IV or V has been considered sufficient for vernacular or *Guru* training courses, qualifying a person to teach in primary schools. At present, the lowest standard is slowly rising, and one important factor is that gradually a larger number of young men and women have received high school education and completed the matriculation course; and many of them, failing to obtain entry into more lucrative services, have drifted to primary training and subsequently taken up work as teachers. Still, the minimum educational qualification usually insisted upon is not success in the matriculation examination, but a comparatively lower level. This question will be discussed more fully later on.

(The nature of training and courses of study differ widely in detail from one State to another. The duration of training is one year in most cases, though it is somewhat more, even two years, in others. There are separate courses for primary and middle-school teachers. There is usually a slight difference in the minimum educational requirements of the two; but the subjects for study are more or less alike, though some distinction is maintained in their respective standards of treatment. The curriculum, again, shows a great variation from place to place, but this is found more in minor details and groupings than in the subjects themselves, which are largely similar. The common elements are principles of teaching with school or class administration, methods of teaching, hygiene, educational psychology and school practice. There are some general subjects for further study, too, such as mother-tongue, history, geography, science and civics, varying according to conditions. Drawing, handicrafts and physical training are usually included, with needlework for women, and sometimes music. Besides these, there are also training courses for graduate teachers in secondary schools. These are instituted in post-graduate training colleges, usually affiliated to universities. They are, naturally, much higher in standard, though the same professional subjects mentioned above are taken up for advanced study. History of education is usually added, whereas the general subjects, in which the students have already acquired sufficient proficiency, are left out.

Besides these, there are also the Basic teachers' courses, in Basic training schools as well as in post-graduate Basic training colleges. Owing to the distinctive features which they possess and their importance in our education, they will be dealt with separately at a later stage.

Students in training have to do practical work in

class-teaching, lesson-planning and preparation of lesson-notes, as also in physical training and handicrafts. Some training institutions achieve good results in teaching their students how to prepare good maps, models and other requisites in school instruction.)

(At present, there is a growing tendency to give a realistic environmental bias to the instruction in our training institutions. Thus in the courses for rural teachers, there is provision for study of local conditions and learning the regional types of industries.) It has to be admitted that this movement is still far from universal or advanced in growth; yet the beginning is there, and it decidedly marks an improvement on the old, stereotyped form of training, detached from the actual conditions and surroundings in which the pupils lived. The large variety of crafts which is found in the syllabuses of the different training institutions is itself suggestive, and they include the widest selection, from basket-weaving and fruit-preservation to soap and ink-making, clay-modelling, paper, cardboard and papier-mâché work and toy-making. This, at least, shows that a conscious effort is being made to bring the training in closer touch with concrete social needs. Even agriculture is taught in teachers' training courses in certain States. In Madhya Pradesh, for instance, the teachers' certificate curriculum includes a study of the general principles of agriculture and gardening, including a knowledge of plant-life and insect pests, and it aims not only to give the teacher adequate knowledge and practice as required for teaching the subject in village schools, but, also, to inspire in him a feeling of the dignity of labour and to prepare him for active rural reconstruction work. As yet, of course, the provision for agriculture in teachers' training has been made only in a few parts of the country; some States find that it is not

possible to teach agriculture along with the other subjects in the limited time available and run a separate course for it. In a few of them, a brief acquaintance with the principles of modern agriculture is made. Thus in West Bengal, where it cannot be treated elaborately, it forms a small part of the study of rural science. It is being slowly realized that in a land where a huge proportion of the people are villagers and rural development is of the highest importance, a study of agriculture is necessary in the preparation of rural teachers.

Another means through which a local element is introduced in the training of teachers today is the interesting and enlarged programme of their extra-curricular activities. Besides the usual forms, such as debating, games and festive celebrations, provision is sometimes made for activities particularly suited to the life around, such as co-operative societies, community-welfare and farmers' clubs. Thus, efforts are being made, in a slow and experimental manner, to make the teachers' training institution the centre of the cultural life of the community around it. This, of course, is particularly the influence of Basic training, which we shall now consider.

The fundamental principle of Basic education is, as is well known, that the education of the child should be centred around a Basic craft, which should define all his educational activity. As its originator, Mahatma Gandhi said:

The principal idea is to impart the whole education of the body and the mind and the soul through the handicraft that is taught to the children. You have to draw out all that is in the child through all the processes of the handicraft, and all your lessons in history, geography and arithmetic will be related to the craft.

Although Gandhiji's original idea was to make all other

teaching subservient to the Basic craft, the idea has undergone modification in course of actual practice.

This is not the place to dwell at length on the psychological, social, cultural and other merits of Basic education. It may only be noted here, as has already been mentioned, that Basic education aims at entire individual development in a background of concrete activity, in balanced and integral relation to the society. As John Dewey says, "What the new times demand is a school capable of training its scholars in complete living in the social world of today." With such an ideal as this, the Basic school and its teachers have a definite part to play in the work of social welfare. Also, it can be easily understood that, for the new teaching (*nai talim*) that the Basic scheme requires, the teacher trained in the traditional manner would not do, and his training, in both form and substance, has to be remodelled on new lines.

(The objectives of the training of teachers under the Basic plan have been set forth as follows:

- (1) To give the student-teachers practical experience of the life of a community based on co-operative work for the common good.

- (2) To help them to understand and accept the social objectives of *Nai Talim*, and the implications of a new social order based on truth and non-violence.

- (3) To encourage the development of all the faculties, physical, intellectual, aesthetic and spiritual, of each student-teacher towards the achievement of a well-integrated, harmoniously balanced personality.

- (4) To equip the student-teacher professionally for his work, i.e. to enable him to understand and meet the physical, intellectual and emotional needs of children.¹

¹ Revised Syllabus for the Training of Teachers, Hindustani Talimi Sangh.

It is quite clear from the ideals stated above that the task of the Basic teacher becomes much greater and wider than ever conceived hitherto. Gandhiji described Basic education as education for life, and its supporters insist that the Basic training institution, together with its practising Basic schools, should function as a democratic community in itself, on the basis of co-operative enterprise. So the importance and responsibility of the Basic training school also become infinitely greater. It has been laid down that the school community should "produce by its own labour as much as possible of its own food and clothing, and should possess in itself the means for a proper cultural life. It should be situated in and be in close touch with the surrounding villages; it should develop into a natural centre for the life of the locality and for programmes of rural reconstruction."¹) Most of the Basic training institutions have been organized on this basis and are growing into truly democratic societies. The benefit that they can render to the work of village development and uplift is very considerable.

The course of the Basic training institution can, thus, be divided into professional training and communal activities. The professional part generally includes: principles of Basic education and school organization, educational psychology, hygiene (which is dealt with in a practical treatment in the other part, too), Basic methods and school practice. Crafts of every type naturally occupy a prominent place in the curriculum, and are taught and practised with great care. General subjects such as mother-tongue, social studies, including history and geography, science and music, are usually there. The exact details, as in the case of the older schools for primary training, vary from one State to another, but the general features are alike; and Hindi is

¹ Ibid.

also taught sometimes in places where it is not the mother-tongue. Some institutions have a varied and interesting programme for practical work in schools, such as observation of class instruction and details of school administration, including daily routine and time-table, progress-record, discipline, school meals and health activities, games, festivities and excursions, discussions with class teachers and preparation of educational materials.

| In the other part of the course, there is provision for intensive and thorough-going training in activities which would bring the maximum degree of economic and social self-sufficiency to the school community. Thus, all members of the community have to perform their own share of duties in the life of the community. They have to take part in all kinds of tasks, from keeping the school building clean and taking care of the school garden, to the preparation and serving of meals. The social life of the training school is organized on the lines of a democratic community, carrying on, in a spirit of co-operation, productive work which subscribes to the essential needs of the community. Thus the students gain a practical understanding of the social objective of education and the ideal of citizenship embodied in it, as, also, of what place discipline has in co-operative activity.

In pursuance of the ideal of social and economic self-sufficiency, Basic training schools take up all sorts of productive occupations satisfying the community's essential needs, of food, clothes and dwelling. So agriculture, spinning and weaving, bamboo and cane-work, carpentry and other manual work figure prominently in Basic training. Importance is attached to these crafts not solely on account of their utility but also because they are very valuable in forming habits of initiative and self-help and in developing a sense of the dignity of labour, on which Gandhiji laid great

emphasis all along. Due care is taken that these activities are conducted in a systematic and scientific manner, providing opportunities for experimental work at every step, so that the educational possibilities in them may be fully utilized in the list of crafts taught in the Basic training institutions in different parts of the country: besides the essential crafts mentioned above, as also those taught in the older type of primary training schools, they cover the widest range, from poultry-farming and beekeeping to tailoring, leathercraft and brasswork. Both in the inclusion of particular crafts in the syllabus of the training institution and in the selection of them by the trainees, due importance is attached to local conditions and demands.

In the Basic training schools, great emphasis is laid on cleanliness and rules of health and hygienic living. Cleanliness, in all its aspects, individual and social is fully developed. It is stated that:

so long as the general standard of living remains at its present low level, the general ignorance of matters relating to health and hygiene so great, and the available medical service so inadequate to the need, health education must have a much larger place in the preparation of a village teacher than may be necessary in other countries.¹

And he is to be instructed not only in rules of hygiene but in first aid, nursing and using simple remedies.

A very commendable feature of these institutions is the training which they give in social service. Social welfare is one of the chief ideals of the new teaching; it aims at establishing a new form of society in which the present gulf between the home and the school is to be bridged through sympathetic and close contact. So social work is considered most essential in the programme of the Basic training school,

¹ Revised Syllabus for the Training of Basic Teachers, p. 23.

which itself becomes the centre of the activities of the outlying region.

Basic training institutions are, also, fully aware of the value of recreational and cultural activities, and make adequate provisions for them in their curriculum. The common forms are music and drama, folk-dance, art, festivals, debates and excursions. The list given by the Revised Syllabus of extra-curricular activities includes the following: appreciation of literature, music, dance and drama; drawing, painting and the decorative arts; recreative games; picnics; camps and excursions. It points out that activities of this type provide the necessary material for the formation of taste and judgment; besides, without the exercise of the aesthetic powers of a person, his harmonious all-round development cannot be attained.

Life in a Basic training institution, which is usually residential, is fully busy and absorbing, and students, as a rule, take it up wholeheartedly. In most of the States, educated young men and women are encouraged to receive Basic training with the help of stipends. The Basic training schools are mostly conducted by the Government. The duration of the course varies from one to two years; and the States which at present institute one-year courses, through lack of resources, are fully aware of the necessity of extending the period, as soon as circumstances permit them to do so. Various compensatory measures have been adopted; thus, in West Bengal, a year's training is followed by a Repeater Course after six months' service. The examinations are conducted by the State Governments. They consist of the usual theoretical and practical parts, with an assessment of the candidate's record of work throughout the training, including written exercises, schoolteaching and articles actually made by him in craftwork; and successful

candidates are awarded certificates. There is, however, no uniformity in the system of examinations and standards of proficiency in the different States, and each of them is left free to tackle the task in its own way and according to its own individual circumstances. In fact, in some States there is no regular examination at the conclusion of the course, but records of the progress made by them are carefully maintained and checked, and are finally assessed by a competent board of examiners. Those whose aggregate scores are considered satisfactory are declared successful and are granted certificates; others are kept for a further period, till their work comes up to the mark. As the state of education, development in various regions is not the same, such a difference in their procedure is natural.) But as conditions settle down to an approximate degree of equality, some standardization in the arrangements will be necessary.

In most of the States, provision has been made for Basic training of a higher type. This is meant for those who would take up instruction in the Basic training schools or enter the administrative and inspecting service. This training is given in the steadily increasing Basic training colleges, the minimum educational qualification for admission to them being a university degree. The students do more advanced work in the Basic line than those in the Basic training schools, with extra subjects like History of Education and Philosophy of Education, and experiments in Educational Psychology and problems related to Basic education.

CHAPTER XIV

THE SUPPLY

A VERY important problem in the educational reconstruction before us is the supply of teachers. In order to achieve the huge task of providing education for all our future citizens, a large majority of whom go without it at present, a sufficient number of capable men and women will be very urgently needed, to be trained and recruited as school teachers. The problem has to be considered from the aspects of both number and merit; not only should the supply be enough to meet the entire demand, but its quality, also, must be fully satisfactory, from the points of view of character, education and professional preparation. Both these factors have to be considered side by side; for, although, in themselves, they consist of separate issues, they are interdependent and inseparable in any practical educational scheme.

Everyone would desire that the education for free India should be of supreme excellence, in conformity with the highest ideals and yet inspired by practical and realistic vision to keep pace with the growing needs of an ever-changing world. It must treasure within itself all that was valuable in the glorious educational and cultural traditions of our country in the past, and, at the same time, should be able to lead us on progressively "to strive to realize new dreams," as the University Education Commission puts it, so that our present can really become "a summary of the past and prophecy of the future."¹ Such an educational system must not be merely a thing to be talked about and hoped for; the establishment of it must be considered an essential necessity and an immediate responsibility, for on it, more than any other factor, will the course of our future history depend.

¹ *Report*, p. 34.

Attainment of independence after centuries of subjection is nothing less than a national rebirth to us; and now our new life, not solely in its intellectual and spiritual aspects but in those of its material prosperity and political advance, too, will be determined chiefly by the education which our children are going to receive. This education must not be dogmatic or narrow in its outlook. It should be based on broad principles of national aspiration as well as cosmopolitan fellowship. International co-operation and goodwill are of the utmost importance in the modern world. Bertrand Russell goes so far as to say:

A sense of the whole human race as one co-operative unit is becoming increasingly necessary if our scientific civilisation is to survive. I think this survival will demand, as a minimum condition, the establishment of a world-state, and the subsequent institution of a world-wide system of education, designed to produce loyalty to the world-state.¹

In the present period of mighty changes in ideals and values throughout the world, the problems of education are increasing, and they demand persistent attention everywhere. Countries like America, Britain and France, which have had quite adequate and well-planned educational arrangements for their children, are now examining those systems afresh to find out what additional elements and fresh outlook would be required in order to adjust them to the newly emerging interests of the world today. Dr. I. L. Kandel of Columbia University Teachers' College, speaks of this changed situation thus:

It is this situation that has aroused such widespread interest in the future of education not only in Great Britain but also in the United States and in other countries of the world. The educational planning which began in the early years of the war does not represent a new interest in education but is part of the whole programme of social reconstruction made imperative

¹ *Education and Social Order*, p. 27.

by a great variety of conditions.... The conditions were the results of the slow and gradual break with the earlier traditions produced by scientific development, by technological advances, by political and economic changes, by transfer of political power, and by changes in culture.¹

In particular, they are considering, from all angles, the condition of the schoolteachers, who are the direct agents for carrying out any widespread educational reforms initiated in the land. As for our country, in which a national system of education is just at its beginning, the argument that men and women appointed as teachers must be of standard excellence, both in nature and accomplishment, would be admitted by one and all.

Of course, in order to draw the right type of young people to the teaching profession, and especially to the field of primary teaching, it will have to be made sufficiently attractive to them. The chief reason for the relatively poor quality of our primary teachers, as compared with persons in other professions, and consequently of the low standard of education imparted by them, is the miserable condition in which these teachers have to live. This has been true, one time or the other of all countries, but in few places has it a truer application than in the case of our country, where the condition of schoolteachers has so far been sadly neglected. If we are to improve our teaching standards, teachers must be offered better emoluments and a higher status in society.

Throughout the course of our educational development in the past the utter inadequacy of teachers' payments was repeatedly discussed, criticized and condemned by official and non-official opinion, but with no substantial result. The Hartog Committee, as we have noted, found that the average monthly salary of primary teachers in certain parts of India was only Rs 8/6/-, and made strong recommendations

¹ *Education in a Changing World*, edited by C. H. Robinson, p. 34.

for a general improvement. The Sargent Committee in 1944 recommended a scale ranging from Rs 30/- to Rs 80/- for primary teachers, with allowance for house-rent; for secondary teachers it was from Rs 40/- to Rs 150/-, with other benefits. Suitable increases were provided for teachers in big cities with higher living expenses, and also separate scales for head teachers, in both cases. Unfortunately, although these revisions were suggested only a decade ago, the rise in the cost of living has been so rapid and high in the meantime that these scales have lost their beneficial value. Thus, although they have been broadly implemented in many parts of the country, the problem remains unsolved.

The Ministry of Education, in a recent publication, has given a detailed account of the scales of salaries of all types of schoolteachers throughout India. A first-hand reference to it is strongly recommended to those interested in the matter. In it one would find a widely varying range of emoluments prevailing in different States, and under different authorities, such as the Government, local bodies and private organizations. It shows that the minimum basic salaries paid to primary teachers are as low as Rs 17/- in Manipur and Tripura, Rs 19/- in West Bengal, Rs 20/- in Bihar and Vindhya Pradesh, Rs 22/- in Orissa and Rs 23/- in Madras. The maximum goes up to Rs 125/- in Hyderabad, Rs 130/- in West Bengal (for teachers employed by the Corporation of Calcutta) and Rs 170/- in Ajmer and Delhi. In the secondary level (including middle and high schools together) the lowest limits are Rs 20/- in Coorg, Rs 22/- in Travancore, Rs 24/- in Orissa and Rs 25/- in Bihar and Saurashtra; and the maximum salaries are Rs 300/- in Ajmer and Delhi, Rs 325/- in the Punjab and Hyderabad and Rs 350/- in Bihar. Heads of institutions generally

have a better grade. Teachers serving in Government schools get far better remuneration than others, and headmasters of high schools under the Government are usually in the provincial grade of service.

A glance at these figures would convince even the casual observer of the deplorable economic condition of our teachers especially those at the lower scales. These, indeed, constitute the greater majority, and the larger amounts, mentioned above, are received by a very few of them. Thus the persons who are entrusted with the vital mission of nation-building are paid remunerations far below the subsistence level, much less than what could ensure any reasonable standard of efficiency.

In this respect, India lags far behind other progressive countries of the world. In Burma, the minimum salary for a teacher was Rs 50/- per month and recently there has been an increase of Rs 40/- over this. In England, the lowest pay for a male teacher is £375 per annum or about Rs 420/- per month. In France, where teachers are employed by the Government, pay-scales are fixed in units which are calculated on the basis of cost of living; the minimum pay for a teacher there is 185 units, which represents 210 per cent of the cost, and the pay-scales of all usual Government posts range from 100 to 800 units. Though, of course, the expenses and conditions of living in those countries are widely different from those in ours, yet these figures are significant.

The World Organization of the Teaching Profession, or W.O.T.P., under the U.N.E.S.C.O., has conducted some valuable international survey of teachers' conditions. From a W.O.T.P. report of 1952, Dr. Eugene L. Hammer of New York, who has made highly valuable contributions in this branch of investigation, has given a comparative estimate of the average salaries of teachers of 29 different countries

all over the world.¹ India, for which the average is taken as Rs 1,000/- a year (or about Rs 83/- per month), is near the bottom of the list, the only countries which rank lower are Turkey and Iran. Even in Japan, where the living expenses are not high, the average pay of a teacher is about two and a half times that of India.

Dr. Hammer records another study which is still more suggestive.² A ranking list was made putting in elementary and secondary teaching among twelve professions of different types including those of doctors and lawyers on one side and farmers and unskilled labourers on the other. Ranking lists were then prepared of the average incomes of all these professions, and separate tables were made for each of the 24 different countries. It was found that in the entire group, India was the only country in which elementary teaching came last (that is, the remuneration of this profession was smaller than all other professions in the country) being bracketed with that of farmers and surpassed even by unskilled labour, which occupied the tenth place. The respective places secured by elementary and secondary teachers in England were seventh and sixth; for Japan they were fourth and third.

The appalling poverty of teachers and their increasing dissatisfaction demand persistent attention of the public and the authorities. Some steps are being taken in most places to give some relief to them. Thus, in West Bengal, very recently, the salaries and dearness allowances of primary, including Basic teachers, have been enhanced, and in the payments of secondary teachers, too, some improvement has been effected. But what has been done so far is quite insignificant in comparison with the actual needs of the

¹ *Year Book of Education, 1953*, p. 106.

² *Ibid.* p. 107.

schoolteacher or the value of his service. The further struggle of life drives him to take up additional occupations, which, indeed, do not bring him full relief, yet sap his energies and efficiency. No amount of platitudes invoking missionary spirit or ideals of plain living and high thinking, which, regrettably enough, are too commonly resorted to in connexion with the teacher's work, with excellent intentions, no doubt, can bring any real comfort to the teacher, or effect the desired improvement in his work. Unless he has enough money to buy the essential commodities of life, to feed and clothe his family, and to educate his children properly, we cannot expect him either to be contented or to apply himself to his task with devotion and wholeheartedness. To quote the remarks of Dr. Hammer again:

We must face the fact that only by paying adequate salaries can we guarantee a good future for education.... A teacher who heads a family of three and has no other source of income is unable to support his family on a level comparable to that enjoyed by the average family. A conservative goal to strive for would be a salary average at least three times that of the *per capita* income.¹

Closely connected with the question of the teacher's emoluments is that of his status in society. Teachers, when better paid, will still remain persons of moderate means, and it is a matter of common knowledge that, however much we wish and speak to the contrary, a man's status in society today is determined to a large and undesirable extent by his financial position. So schoolteachers, and particularly those at the bottom of the service, hold a very low and insignificant place in social estimation; and this, too, casts its baneful effect on the profession. Unless teachers are accorded the social esteem which they deserve

¹ Ibid. p. 479.

by virtue of their vocation, they can never prove themselves worthy either of its noble ideals or of the active responsibility which pertains to it.

The social position of the schoolteacher is rather a paradox everywhere. In theory, the teacher and his mission are universally placed on the highest pedestal, and every reference to him is made with a respect which is shown to few other callings; thus, "it is not an accident that in every culture the religious leader and the teacher, in the word's broadest-most sense, are virtually synonymous."¹ Yet the schoolmaster, as a general rule, lives in poverty and isolation, a grossly neglected member of society, ridiculed "as a boy among men and man among boys." The fact is that the essential importance of the duty which we assign to the teacher leads us to expect the highest intellectual and moral qualities of him. But the teacher constantly fails to live up to our high expectation, because the poor pittance and status which the profession has to offer cannot draw persons of sterling excellence; and even if some really good people drift in, they find it difficult to keep up their standard of quality, in a life of bitter hardship, want and neglect. The reason why we find no compelling reason to pay the teacher well enough for his work, probably, is this. Although we realize that the task of educating our children is profoundly necessary and vital, there is also a lurking feeling that it is not at all difficult, and calls for no special skill or ability. The practical worth of any vocation usually depends on the specific aptitudes and qualities required in it, which are not possessed by persons outside the profession, and are not attainable without specialized training and experience. The calling of an engineer, for instance, or a lawyer, satisfies this condition; but that of the teacher, in

¹ Ibid. p. 2.

popular opinion, at least, does not fall in this category. Thus professional teachers claim that they do have special skill in transmitting learning. But it is very doubtful if the lay public is convinced of that. It is generally held that "anyone can teach if he has a fair command of the subject matter."¹ Such an attitude, of course, is quite wrong at the present day, when experimental investigation has proved the enormous need for specialized study, training and experience in the sphere of school instruction. Yet such a misconception has prevailed everywhere and still prevails to some extent; and this mainly accounts for the cramped position in which the teacher finds himself in society. As Waller puts it, "The teacher is isolated because the community isolates him. It insists on regarding him as something more than a God and less than a man."

Whatever be the reasons, schoolteachers are occupying an unenviable position in the social structure. Even in progressive countries like America, France and Japan, we are told, schoolmasters, especially primary teachers, have little access to higher society. Notable exceptions are England and Soviet Russia. In Russia, every provision has been made in recent years by the State to pay the teacher well and to give him due social recognition. In England, schoolmasters have for a long time occupied a place of honour, not merely in ideal, but in actual practice. This is mainly due to the old public school tradition, which is greatly valued in the country, and the recipients of the greatest honour have been the masters of public schools, some of whom have become prominent national figures. But though it is true that teachers outside this hallowed circle, especially those in the State secondary and elementary schools, have not received an equal amount of recognition, certainly their place in the

¹ Ibid. p. 27.

social scale is better in comparison with most other countries. Also, in the recent educational reforms, a wholehearted attempt has been made to remove these artificial barriers between classes of teachers. Thus, Dr. Hans of London University observes, "It was characteristic of the English social stratification that teachers were divided even in their professional association," but, "Since 1944, these divisions are obsolete."¹ Generally speaking, the public in England is fully conscious of the important service which teachers render to the nation, and so voluntarily receives them as respected members of the society. Thus, the MacNair Committee Report states: "We wish to place on record that our own investigations have led us to a high appreciation of the profession and to the conviction that parents especially are conscious of the debt they owe to teachers, particularly at the present time;"² still it adds as a warning, "Teaching as a profession will not be accorded the esteem it deserves until the interest of men and women generally extends beyond the happiness of their own children and beyond schools which they happen to know, and reaches out to an appreciation of education as something of vital concern to all citizens."³

The social tradition of teachers in India, too, in the old days was high as we find it in England. They set good standards of mental and moral superiority, and were held in regard by the rich and poor alike. But with the great social, economic and political changes through which the country has passed, the position of teachers has also deteriorated considerably, and at present it is far from what it ought to be. Their low salary, as has been observed, is

¹ N. Hans, *Comparative Education*, p. 270.

² *Teachers and Youth Leaders* (MacNair Committee Report), p. 29.

³ *Ibid.*

largely responsible for it, and inadequate educational qualification, slavish dependence on persons without worth who hold control over their services, and such other factors have also made the position worse. As the Secondary Education Commission remarks, "on the whole their position today is even worse than it was in the past. It compares unfavourably not only with persons of similar qualifications in other professions, but also, in many cases, with those of lower qualifications who are entrusted with less important and socially less significant duties. They have often no security of tenure and their treatment by management is, in many cases, inconsistent with their position and dignity."¹ If we are to raise the quality of education, the social status of those who impart it must also be raised. This must be realized by persons in all grades of society who cherish in their hearts the welfare of our future citizens. We quote again the valuable observations of the Secondary Education Committee in this context, "There is a growing feeling that the lead in this matter should be taken by persons in high public positions who should show special recognition of the status and dignity of teachers and treat them not on the basis of their salary and economic status, but of the importance of the nation-building work that is entrusted to them."² The Government has set a fine example by holding receptions for primary teachers in Rastrapati Bhavan attended by the President, Prime Minister and Education Minister of India.

Besides proper salary and social recognition, certain other amenities which many teachers do not enjoy at present, are necessary. Their conditions of service, whatever be the type of school in which they serve, should be fair and secure; and they should be granted such essential benefits as Provident

¹ *Teachers and Youth Leaders*, p. 155.

² *Ibid.* p. 163.

Fund, gratuities, pensions, medical relief and educational facilities for their children. The provision of all these amenities would ensure devoted and improved service from the present teachers, and would also draw properly qualified persons to the profession in future.

It is vitally important that persons of adequate merit should be attracted to our teaching personnel. Their educational background should be such that they may have a sound grasp over the aims and methods of education and conduct their schoolteaching with efficiency and success.

As we have seen, the educational standard of primary teachers, in particular, has been deplorably low in the past. The heads of training institutions have often to face the problem of training, or trying to train, candidates, who on the basis of their educational attainments and understanding, are quite untrainable. There were scathing criticisms of the matter in official records and notes, throughout the years of educational expansion under the British rule, from the *Education Dispatch* of 1854 to the Hartog Committee Report and the Sargent Report, but this unhappy state of affairs was allowed to continue. It seems such a great pity, that at a time when the educational institutions of the world were turning out increasing numbers of able young persons, completing matriculation or higher courses in education, many of whom had subsequently to face grim unemployment and frustration, the schools should be staffed by such undeserving persons.

Lately, the feeling is steadily growing that the present qualifications of the primary teachers should be raised, but the actual progress achieved as yet is not very great. In the U.N.E.S.C.O. publication, *Compulsory Education in India*, the authors have given figures for the educational qualifications of primary teachers in 1947-48, and they observe, "Less than

five per cent of the teachers have passed the matriculation or the secondary school certificate examination, a large majority have completed only the primary course, so that their general education is no higher than that of the pupils they are expected to teach. A fairly large number have not even completed the primary course.”¹ Thus, there are large numbers of teachers with qualifications far below the level of efficiency and the fact to be regretted is that the appointment of such persons as new recruits still continues.

The Central Advisory Board of Education has insisted for some time that no one who is not at least a matriculate should be appointed as a teacher. The Secondary Education Commission has also expressed this view. But although educational authorities in the different States accept this principle, in actual practice, as we have seen, they fall far short of it. As the Secondary Education Commission has remarked, in connexion with the general education of primary teachers, “The general educational qualification of these teachers varies from State to State but on the whole it is not high. In some States they should have read up to the third form or eighth standard of the high school or they should have completed the higher elementary course.”²

It is highly desirable that the broad principle of recruiting only those who have passed at least the matriculation or its equivalent examination should be immediately adopted everywhere. Matriculates may not be available in sufficient numbers, particularly, as we shall consider later on, when there is full development of education. Exceptions, therefore will have to be made in many cases, for some time at least. But wherever such an exception becomes essential, we must look for qualifications as near the prescribed minimum as

¹ *Compulsory Education in India*, U.N.E.S.C.O., p. 39.

² *Ibid.* p. 165.

possible, and candidates who have some special ability, such as proficiency in scouting or games, to make up for their educational deficiency, should be given preference. We may hope that soon, after the immediate needs are fulfilled for the present, a time will come when we should be able to get as many matriculates as are required for the purpose. Alas, it must be borne in mind that this standard will have to be regarded only as the minimum, so that if persons of better education are available, effort should be made to secure them. As the Secondary Education Committee says, "We have noted that at present in many schools, the staff appointed satisfy only the minimum educational qualifications prescribed. It is very desirable that at least some of the teachers should possess higher educational qualifications both in general education and in teaching." Elsewhere, it observes, "So far as high schools are concerned, only graduates with a degree in education should be appointed.... It is our hope that, in course of time, education at the middle-school stage will be imparted by graduate teachers, and secondary grade teachers will be available for primary or junior Basic schools."¹ We must, also, remember that scholastic attainments alone must not guide us in the selection of teachers; factors of personality, temperament, extra-curricular activities and other details, also, have to be taken into account. When the training of teachers becomes universal, the bulk of these tasks connected with selection will be performed by the training college at the time of admission of the candidates; and the question will be further discussed in that section.

Side by side with the educational fitness of the teachers, we must also duly realize the urgent need for the requisite professional training of the teachers. Even in England,

¹ *Report*, p. 157.

where training was considered essential only for primary teaching in the past, the recent educational reforms, initiating a unified form of school education insist that all teachers should undergo training. Educational opinion is now unanimous about the essential need for special training in the schoolmaster's vocation. The Report of the Committee of the Central Advisory Board on the service and training of teachers contains the following observations regarding this matter:

The Committee have no hesitation in expressing the opinion that every teacher employed in any kind of school maintained or aided out of public funds or recognised by Government must be trained.... They believe that there is a technique or art of teaching which can be learnt and that, if it is so, before any man or woman is allowed to operate on human material, he or she must be required to acquire the necessary mastery of this technique.¹

One important fact to be noted here is that public interest in the obligatory professional training of the teacher is not yet fully aroused. Thus the Government and Municipal bodies, as a rule, appoint trained teachers, but those serving in private schools, sometimes the majority of them, are untrained and there is no compelling provision to appoint trained teachers. This defect has to be remedied. On the one hand, no one without a teacher's certificate should be allowed to teach in a school; on the other hand, facilities for training should be so expanded that trained staff may be available for all schools.

As things exist at present, the proportion of trained persons in the teaching personnel is quite low. We have already seen that, in 1937, the percentage of trained teachers in primary schools was a little over 57 in the case of men, and 58 for women; and for secondary teaching, the position was

¹ *Report*, p. 3.

more favourable. Since then, the number of schools has greatly increased, but the proportion of trained teachers in them has shown no improvement. The quinquennial *Review of Education*, 1947-52, states that out of a total of 561 thousand primary teachers, only 58.2 per cent are trained. The picture is far from satisfactory; particularly as the education of primary teachers is still very poor, it is extremely undesirable and harmful that such a large number of untrained men should remain entrusted with the responsible task of educating little children. Besides, when we consider that, with a full expansion of primary education, which is urgently needed, the total number of teachers required would be several times more than it is at present, the existing position of available trained teachers utterly depresses us.

Leaving this question aside for the present, let us turn our attention to that of the supply of teachers. A huge number of suitably qualified and trained teachers will be additionally required to meet the increase now created by the essential expansion of primary education in our country. Although the training of teachers is our primary concern here, the problem of recruitment or supply is so closely connected with it, that a brief consideration of it would be necessary.

The total number of teachers in 1952, employed in the different types of schools in India, is somewhat over seven and a half lakhs. At present about 40 per cent of the children within the age-group of 6 to 11 years are attending schools. For introducing a programme of compulsory primary education a staff of 22 lakh teachers will be necessary. The Constitution of India lays down that within ten years of its promulgation, universal compulsory and free education must be provided for all its children. This view, with suitable changes in the time-limit, has been emphasized in subsequent official committees, conferences and discussions, such as the

Kher Committee and the All-India Educational Conference. The Kher Committee has made two five-year and one six-year plans, by which compulsion is to be extended year by year, so that by 1959, all children between 6 and 11 years will come under it, and in 1965 it will rise to the age of 14. Broadly following these lines, the different States have plans of their own for the introduction of compulsory Basic education within specified periods.

It is, of course, difficult to say how long it will actually take to materialize these plans fully. The overwhelming difficulty which stands in the way is the lack of funds. How the vast sums of money needed for providing free primary education for all our children will be raised is not a matter for discussion here, but a problem for statesmen to consider. At a time when conditions were even less favourable, Gandhiji sought to find a way out of this difficulty through Basic education, by conceiving it on financially self-supporting lines. All that can be said here is that the dismal ignorance in which the children of our soil are growing up should be considered a serious illness which is undermining the life-energy of the entire future generation, and the question of their education should be given full priority by all concerned.

The next difficulty regarding the introduction of compulsion is the dearth of properly qualified and trained teachers. For the introduction of compulsory primary education roughly an additional 22 lakh teachers will be required. If we allow 6 per cent a year for wastage, that is retirements, resignations, etc., the annual extra need will be for 1,32,000 teachers. With this we have to consider the question of the annual increase in population. If it is calculated at the modest rate of 1 per cent, the corresponding rise in the annual intake will be 1,320. This huge array of teachers will have to be recruited and trained. On a rough calculation, an

annual addition of 353 thousand new teachers will supply both the immediate requirements and the extra annual vacancies, within the next 10 years; and subsequently, only the annual requirement, which is a little over 133 thousand, will have to be filled in. The problem is how to secure this annual supply of 353 thousand teachers during the 10 years of expansion. The Sargent Committee considered this problem of finding teachers so serious that it was obliged to extend its programme of compulsory primary education over a period of 40 years, being the minimum time in which they could be recruited and trained. But forty years would be too long a period to wait, and as Maulana Abul Kalam Azad, as Education Minister, said in a memorable speech in Parliament, "the people of India were not prepared to wait even half the period." Such a scheme, however perfect it seemed to be, was not acceptable to anyone. Let us see in a very general manner what other practical means there can be.

The total number of students who passed the matriculation or its equivalent examination in 1952 is 586 thousand. This should form the main source of supply. We have also to take into account the large number of unemployed persons¹ possessing the matriculation certificate or higher qualifications. For the initial period of 10 years, teachers may well be recruited also from those who have studied up to the matriculation class, and especially such persons who through economic or other reasons, could not continue their studies. This would offer a sufficiently big field for selection and appointment, and there is not much fear of a serious shortage even during the years of expansion.

Although excellence of quality is of supreme importance

¹ According to a recent estimate given by our Finance Minister, Sri C. Deshmukh (reported in the newspapers on 4 June 1954), the recurring annual number of unemployed persons is 1·2 million.

in the selection of teachers, as we have previously insisted, and it is highly desirable that the existing low standard of education of primary teachers should be raised, we must not have any misgivings, during the first ten years of growth, about the appointment of suitable and well-selected non-matriculantes, as suggested above. In this respect, the view of the Sargent Report that the scheme of educational development cannot be executed until all the teachers are qualified and trained to the strictly prescribed standard cannot be supported. At a time of serious necessity, as at present, a slight deviation from the fixed principle is not only permissible but quite necessary. The recent educational reforms in England should prove suggestive to us. There, through the increased need created by the Education Act of 1944, there was an immediate demand for 50,000 additional teachers. The recurring annual requirement due to wastage, also, rose to 15,000. The annual output of young men and women completing their secondary course of studies, which used to be the minimum educational requirement for being recruited as teachers, was only 21,000; and it was not possible that the teaching profession alone should take away nearly three-fourths of them. So the authorities immediately changed the rules regarding minimum educational attainments and opened their ranks to persons having other types of qualifications, such as experience in the army or in industrial concerns. The measure has already justified itself, and a competent authority observes in this connexion, "The influx of men and women from all walks of life with non-academical practical experience will considerably change the narrow professional outlook of the body of teachers and will break down the social barriers between the teachers and the outside world."¹

¹ N. Hans, *Comparative Education*, p. 271.

We must bear in mind, too, that all these well-devised and prompt measures were adopted not for the education of children who were steeped in illiteracy, for there was universal education in the land already, but for raising the age of compulsion from 14 to 15. Also, this huge reorganization was undertaken at a time when the resources of the country were depleted through the War, and there was enough justification at least for postponing it. How much greater, then, in comparison becomes the problem in our country, where vast numbers of children have no means even of attaining literacy; and an all-out effort should be launched to remove this ignorance, with whatever material and resources we have immediately available. As far as the teaching personnel is concerned, we have seen that the field of recruitment is fairly adequate, and every possible inducement must be offered so that the required number of teachers may be secured. If all these inducements fail to draw enough numbers of teachers for our scheme of expansion, there is such a measure as compulsion to enrolment or conscription. By this means, every educated young man or woman must serve as a school teacher for a specified period. The idea of conscripting teachers for accelerating the educational progress in India has been advocated by the greatest leaders of Indian thought, such as Gandhiji, Vivekananda, Sri Rajagopalachari and Maulana Azad. Mahatma Gandhi, referring to the need for the conscription of educated youths to spread Basic education in the land, said, "I call upon them to give freely a year of their lives to the service of the nation." If the conscription of men is justified during a war, there cannot really be any objection to the conscription of teachers in the fight against widespread ignorance, than which no greater enemy is conceivable.

Next comes the question of the professional training of all these recruits. We have already noted that, at present, we have only a fifth part of the total number of primary teachers which will be required when compulsory primary education comes in, and of them about 58 per cent are trained. So we can easily see what a gigantic task remains to be accomplished in this direction.

Since the attainment of independence, all the States have paid special attention, as has been previously noted, to the training of teachers, and particularly, the preparation of Basic teachers. The output of trained teachers, as a consequence, has risen. But the number of them is still far short of the actual requirement, and the preparation, both in amount and in seriousness, does not seem to be in conformity with the magnitude of the problem.

It is difficult to calculate, with even approximate accuracy, the total number of persons annually receiving training at the teachers' training institutions all over the country. The institutions themselves are of a wide variety of types, and the position is constantly changing. On a rough conjecture, made on the basis of the enrolments in the training schools and colleges in the different States every year, the number comes up to between 15 and 16 thousand. This figure, if it is accepted as some sort of indication, is insignificantly low when compared with the actual requirement. Even of the existing personnel of primary teachers, about 42 per cent still remains to be trained, and then there is the question of the additional 353 thousand teachers to be required annually for the next 10 years in the expansion scheme mentioned above.

This problem, although vast, should not surprise us. We know that the number of primary schools has to be increased five times, and a large part of the existing teachers in them

are untrained; so it is quite natural that the output of trained hands, too, has to be increased enormously. When we have to build up the vast educational structure in its entirety, in place of the present fractional structure, and quite a small fraction at that, such a problem is only to be expected.

How to meet the urgent need for the training of this vast number of teachers? Let us turn once more to the recent educational activities in England for guidance. We have already seen how the recent educational reforms there created an immediate need for a large number of additional teachers. The existing training colleges, naturally, were not in a position to meet this increased demand. For this purpose, the authorities widened the training colleges as far as possible, and as an experimental measure, emergency training colleges were started with a short course of one year instead of the usual two years. Within 1947, as many as 47 emergency training colleges were opened and the annual output from these alone was calculated to be 11,000; and it was found that "mature adults with experience of life can achieve in a year of intensive training as much as young boys and girls, direct from secondary schools, in two years."¹

For our teachers, too, we shall have to devise all sorts of emergency means. Many more training institutions and centres will have to be started, and the output in the present ones will have to be substantially increased. It would not be wrong to presume, from the reports of different States, that the total number of persons trained in the existing institutions in many of them is far below the maximum. Thus in Orissa in 1952, 15 institutions trained only 531 primary teachers, and in West Bengal, 1,423 teachers were trained in 53 institutions; these have much room for improvement.

¹ Hans, *op. cit.*, p. 271.

Besides this, double-shift classes, shortened courses to be supplemented by refresher classes, seminars, in-service training, educational conferences and symposia should be initiated on a well-planned basis to meet the emergency. During the initial years, if the entire school cannot be staffed with trained persons, the head teacher and one or two of the senior teachers must be trained. With such an arrangement a start can be made without a very serious loss in the quality of work. The trained teachers at the top can instruct and guide the untrained junior teachers, who too, should be made to get themselves trained as soon as the opportunity occurs.

We have said nothing separately here about women teachers, because the same considerations would apply in the case of both men and women. Women are needed not only for teaching in girls' schools; but for little boys also, they usually make better teachers than men, and in Western countries much of this work is conducted by women teachers. In India, due to the backwardness of women's education, the number of women in the teaching profession is yet small. But all the State Governments are paying special attention to the education of women, and it is hoped that more and more of them will be available for teaching in schools.

CHAPTER XV

THE TRAINING

WE HAVE already noted the various types of teachers' training institutions existing in our country. The nature and scope of the work done by them, and some recent recommendations and reforms concerning their work have also been discussed. In the present chapter we shall continue that discussion, in the light of the actual present-day requirements of our educational system and, also, of modern trends in pedagogical thought and practice.

The training institutions of India today have a very important role to play in moulding the life of the future generation. They will have to train a body of ardent and inspired men and women, whose responsibility will be not only to build up an enlightened society, but also to conceive clearly what the society should stand for and formulate their educational ideals accordingly. As the University Commission Report says, "Our educational system must find its guiding principle in the aims of the social order for which it prepares, in the nature of the civilization it hopes to build."¹ As such, merely to equip the intending teachers academically and professionally for their vocation of school teaching must not be the sole duty of the training college; indeed, it is only a small part of the service expected of it. It should inspire its pupils to the right ideal of life, in its social and individual bearing, and should guide them in their activities in and outside the school. As the Sargent Report observes, the training institutions "ought not only to provide the requisite professional training, but should also inculcate a way of life which will attract and make its mark upon the young man and woman who intends to be a teacher."²

¹ *U. C. Report*, p. 35.

² *Ibid.* p. 59.

Such a change of outlook is essential not only in the training of teachers, but in the entire field of our education today. In every sphere, strong and intimate links should be formed with our life and society, not simply as they are but as we would wish them to be. As an eminent contemporary English educationist, Sir John Maud, remarks, "The only motive for promoting education which has any reasonable chance of success is the motive which impels us to educate our own children — the desire that by education the child or adult will learn to make up his mind for himself and so become a man of significance . . . neither a stranger in the world nor afraid of it, but aware of his power, however limited, to co-operate in the fashioning and re-fashioning of it."¹

As far as the training colleges are concerned, this kind of education cannot be ensured merely by the contents of the theoretical and practical courses of study which the student has to master. It will be determined greatly, also, by the manner in which the course is presented to him, by his environmental conditions and by the habits and attitudes developed by him as he goes through his training.

The courses at the various training institutions of the country have already been discussed. Leaving details aside, they have certain common subjects, such as Principles of Education, Educational Psychology, Methods of Teaching, Hygiene and School Practice.

These professional subjects or studies, with minor variations, constitute teachers' courses to be found anywhere. Their value and efficacy have been proved by long and universal trial. So a detailed analysis of their claim to be included in the teachers' training curriculum will not be

¹ *Education in a Changing World*, edited by C. H. Robinson, p. 83.

attempted here. Only a few general remarks will be made, in order to show the characteristic features of some of them and also to indicate what sort of a presentation would render them most helpful and useful to the teacher in the making.

The course in Principles of Education deals with educational objectives and conceptions in general as well as educational organization in its different aspects. It is very important for the teacher to start with a definite idea of what education properly should be and to obtain a full comprehension of its cultural, historical, individual and social implications. He should also understand the place and functions of the school in human society, and how it stands in relation to the students whom it educates as well as the parents who put their children in its care. He must realize that the child's education is influenced jointly by his home and school and so the conditions of his home should be studied and turned to the best advantage. He should have a clear comprehension of the true nature of discipline. Education is fundamentally a disciplinary process; and a wide acquaintance with the basis as well as the functioning of this process should be gained by the teacher, so that he can train his pupils in sound ways of discipline. He has to acquire a full knowledge of every sphere of school teaching and administration, including such matters as curriculum, time-tables, examinations, records of progress, curricular and extra-curricular activities; and this is to be supplemented by the concrete working of his ideas in the practical part of the course. He must study the educational system of his country, noting how it has developed, what its characteristic features and trends are and what changes it needs. He should have an idea of the outstanding experiments and movements in education, such as the Kindergarten, Projects, Activities, Dalton assignments, Montessori system, and Basic education.

He should be familiar with the contributions made by leading educational workers and thinkers, such as Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Gandhiji and Tagore. A detailed study of these, as also of the growth of educational ideas and systems, properly belongs to the course in History of Education, usually included in advanced teachers' training, but all students must get some idea of them in their study of Principles. Also, a selection of the best classical works on education should be prescribed for first-hand study in every training course.

Principles, thus, would become the central factor of the theoretical studies in the training colleges. The success of the work done through it would depend largely on how this subject is treated. The future professional ideals and outlook of the teacher are greatly influenced by it; those who have studied it under great masters would readily testify how powerfully it has inspired and guided them in their later career as a teacher.

Educational Psychology gives the student an insight into the nature and workings of the human mind, and, in particular, the mind of the child, with their bearing on his educational process. As a rule, students, in training colleges like this subject greatly as shown by the spontaneous interest which they evince in it. Its direct and practical relation with the work in the classroom, and its human interest based on their own observations and experiences, render it a fascinating study to young teachers in training. In particular, during the last few decades, the growth and development of the subject, especially in the field of experimental research have been both rapid and extremely valuable, and its importance in the training college curriculum has also increased. In the education and upbringing of a child, the study of the child himself becomes the supreme factor, and a

psychological understanding of the child and his educational process, thus, becomes indispensable. Without a real interest in children, the teacher can never form bonds of intimacy and confidence, and they would not look upon him as a trusted friend whose guidance they are spontaneously to seek. He may have a good mastery over his subjects and a sound command over the technique of teaching, but these alone, without a study of children themselves, cannot take him very far in his career as a teacher of young boys.

Therefore, in educating children, a practical notion of such living aspects of the work as intelligence, memory, formation of habits, laws of learning, individual differences, is to be gained. To a zealous and sympathetic student, his school-work will provide ample material for observation. When he can intelligently understand and analyse, on a psychological basis, such everyday problems as why a boy is backward in his studies, what can be the underlying factors of bullying or untruthfulness, what use can be made of such traits as curiosity and sociability in boys, only then can he discharge his duties with ease, skill and success. He finds real interest and enjoyment in his work; it is no longer mechanical routine and drudgery to him. The experimental devices which he learns and practises in such spheres as measurement of intelligence, aids to memory and development of skill, provide very useful as well as entertaining occupation to the zealous young teacher. Also, even from his small acquaintance with the practical principles of psychology, he acquires an idea of the functionings of his own mind, and also some ability and desire to analyse its traits and experiences. This, also, substantially helps him to prepare himself for his vocation as a teacher. He can make a study of his own prominent tendencies, classifying them as strong and weak factors in relation to his professional approach to children,

and try to effect conscious adjustments. These would be neither systematic nor perfect; nevertheless, they cannot be without their beneficial effect. Success, of course, will depend on the extent of wholeheartedness and devotion with which the teacher may apply himself to the task. Still, it will produce good results in any case; for, in the case of a teacher who possesses true zeal in his work, the ignorance of such principles would only deprive him and his pupils of the full measure of distinction which he deserved, and even for those who are not serious, this ignorance would rule out the little chance of success they would otherwise have.

It is needless to mention here that the study of Educational Psychology to be really fruitful to the teacher must be given a practical and experimental approach. The teacher in training should have full opportunity of mastering its principles in the light of their everyday application to educational work. It is neither possible nor desirable to go into long philosophical theories and discussions; and these, only when necessary, are to be presented in a curtailed and simplified form, pointing out their concrete bearing on child-education. Also, Educational Psychology is an experimental science, and so the need for practical work in the teaching of it is very great. Even in the junior courses, some simple experimental work, such as the use of graded objective tests and experiments on memory skill and such other topics may be conducted. In higher post-graduate training, more advanced experimental work, such as the elaborate application of tests, study of correlation, detailed and prolonged psychological study of a selected child, should be taken up, and original research should be encouraged. Some acquaintance should be made with mental hygiene and the work of child-guidance. It is a very satisfactory feature of our training colleges today that the value of this practical

aspect of the study of Educational Psychology is being fully realized.

It would, of course, be absurd to expect that the acquaintance which the student gets with psychology at the training college would turn him into an expert, competent to deal with psychological abnormalities or to pronounce final judgments on the subtle processes of the child's mind. All that is desired is that his study of the subject should create in him an intelligent and sympathetic interest in children and in their mental process and behaviour. He should also be able to detect any gross deviation from the normal standard so that he can promptly bring it to the notice of more skilled and experienced authorities.

So great is the importance of Educational Psychology and, also, the prominence which is given to it in consequence, that the other studies in the course are greatly influenced by it. To the layman, the training of teachers signifies a mere grounding in child-psychology. It would be a grave mistake, however, that it is the only subject of practical use and benefit to the intending teacher, and the others only serve a subsidiary and minor purpose. It is true, no doubt, that a psychological approach is needed, and should be formed, in other subjects such as Methods of Teaching and School Practice itself, but it can never supplant other subjects in the curriculum. For instance, the course in Principles, which is sometimes neglected in the interests of Psychology, can alone guide the teacher as to the objectives of education, the ideals to be aimed at and the values to be judged, whereas Educational Psychology can only tell him in what manner, and to what degree of approximation he can achieve certain results. Thus, although Educational Psychology should retain its position of importance in the training college

curriculum, the other subjects, too, should have their particular spheres of usefulness.

Hygiene, usually including physical education in theory and practice, equips the teacher with essential facts about the bodily growth and well-being of the child, and the conditions of living and environment which would be conducive to this process. The importance of the physical aspect of the child's education, though ignored in the old days, is now universally recognized. His intellectual and even moral development, too, are intimately related with it. So it becomes indispensable for the teacher to gain a working knowledge of the rules governing the child's health and development, his diet, physical exercises and games, the diseases he is liable to contract and their prevention, the hygienic environment necessary for him, and so on. These facts, too, should be presented to him in a concrete and living manner. Practical and experimental work on measures of health and hygiene, not only by the teachers but by the students themselves should be carried out. Training in games, physical training and first aid, if not conducted separately, should form a useful part of this course. Training college students are sometimes found to complain that the treatment of the subject is abstract and dull, and so they do not find any real interest in it. Rightly presented, as it is done in some of the new Basic training institutions, it should be no less attractive to them than Educational Psychology. The study of the subject should be such as can make the teacher actively and wholeheartedly interested in the health of the children under his care. He should be able to guide them in hygienic ways of living, maintain a constant watch on their physical welfare and send them up for medical attention, whenever necessary.

In methods of teaching, or Methodology, to use the name

in common use at training colleges, there is a study of both general and special methods. In the former division, which is sometimes partly covered by Principles of Education and Educational Psychology, the student finds general guidance in the practice of instruction. It includes such topics as the planning of lessons, preparation of lesson-notes, correlation of subjects, use of objects and appliances, different approaches to the technique of instruction and well-known modern modes and devices of teaching. The other part outlines detailed procedure regarding the teaching of different school subjects; sometimes, especially in advanced training, Methodology of only a group of subjects is taken up for thorough and specialized study. This course aims at showing the student the most fruitful way to present his lessons to his class, having equipped him with all those methods and tactics which have been evolved after long and careful experiments, extending over large fields of work and observation, by specialists of skill and experience.

There is little need to mention here that the teaching of Method should be thoroughly practical. This practical bias, as we have seen, is the keynote of the entire training course, which is to attain its ultimate fulfilment in practice itself; but in no other part of the studies the importance of the practical aspect would be more keenly felt than in Method. At every step, the teaching of the subject should be linked up with actual work in schools. The specialist lecturers should conduct school lessons giving lucid demonstrations of the principles discussed by them, and students under training, too, should be required to apply these principles in the course of their supervised class-teaching. So the student, who possesses the necessary background of knowledge of both teaching matter and the Principles of Education, can understand these methods critically and derive the fullest benefit from them.

It is not to be understood, of course, that the methods which the young student learns at the training college should fix for him the orbit in which he is always to move. He should be able to enter into their spirit and use them as the guiding principles from which he can evolve his own individual methods as his wisdom and experience grow. As Prof. M. L. Jacks very aptly remarks, "There are indeed no tricks of the trade, and the search for them will always be fruitless. The tricks are the tricks of the tradesman, and these he perfects for himself as a part of his teaching method."¹ But they should certainly initiate him to progressive and scientific ideas of teaching and instil in him a fresh and experimental outlook, ever ready to improve by his own experiences as also by what he learns about outstanding advances in the field of pedagogy. There are certain modern devices in school-teaching of paramount importance to the work of a teacher today, and he should gain a thorough working acquaintance with them in his study of methods. Among these, mention may be made, among others, of audio-visual aids in education, the maintenance of cumulative records and the systematic organization of extra-curricular activities of various types. The value of audio-visual aids or direct appeals to the ears and eyes of young pupils, is well established; these include educational broadcasts over the radio, cinema films, magic lanterns, epidiascopes and the like, and students should be trained in the utilization of these appliances. Cumulative records are comprehensive statements on the pupil's career, entered on a special form, tabulating not only his academic progress but also his temperamental traits, special interests, extra-curricular achievements and so on; these 'educational profiles' are of invaluable use throughout the period the boys are at school, as also in their later career,

¹ M. L. Jacks, *Total Education*, p. 86.

particularly at the time of their selection for higher studies or for appointments. The students should learn the value of such records at the training college and study methods of preparing them. They should also be trained in the proper way of conducting and making full educational use of diverse extra-curricular activities like debates, dramatic enterprises, etc., which are filling the school programmes of today in an increasing measure.

School practice constitutes a vital part of the intending teacher's preparation for his career. It gives him an opportunity of carrying out in practice the principles and methods which he masters in the remaining part of his training. The class becomes his laboratory, and there he can put into concrete application his newly-acquired ideas, test them and be assured of their practical value and soundness. As has been emphasized before, all the work done in the theoretical part of the course should have a practical bias, because whatever the student learns in course of his training, the habits he forms and the outlook he acquires are to have their ultimate fulfilment in his practical application of them in the education of children. Therefore, without such a correlation of theory with practice which actual class teaching and management alone can give, much of the work done at the training college would be wasted. Another very beneficial purpose served by school practice is that it gives the future teacher his chance of coming into direct contact with pupils in a class, and of dealing at first-hand with all those problems which class instruction and management bring forth. In the words of the MacNair Committee, it is "to provide a situation in which the student can experience what it is to be a teacher."¹ To the young teacher who has not taught at a school before, this situation is new and often

¹ *Report*, p. 78.

difficult, and it requires some preparation and effort to take in his stride. The guided practice in the course of his training helps him to form sound pedagogical habits, based on psychological principles. As Dewey puts it, "The school practice of today has a definite psychological basis. Teachers are already possessed by specific psychological assumptions which control their theory and their practice."¹

Practice lessons, to be truly beneficial, must be under proper and regular supervision. The advice and criticism the student gets from his supervisors are of inestimable value to him in acquiring practical mastery of the right methods and in avoiding wrong ones, which once picked up, are a constant hindrance to efficient work. His supervisors present before the young teacher a correct picture of himself at work, as it really is, and not as, often wrongly, he imagines it to be. Thus is the sure way to bridge the gulf between his theory and practice, his ideas and concrete execution of them. It is not always easy, even for an experienced person, to form a true estimate of his own activity when he is every moment preoccupied with the activity itself, or to assess what impression his actions, speech and attitude are making on others. To the beginner teaching in the class, this is all the more difficult, and hence the free, unbiased criticisms which he gets from his teachers are of the utmost help to him. Thus, at this stage, the teacher before formally entering his vocation, passes through a trial period in which he gets a very valuable opportunity of studying himself in relation to his work, supplemented and corrected by the expert judgment of his teachers. Such advice and opinion, of course, he will get while in service from his headmaster or inspectors, and these may be very friendly, too, both in motive and manner. But owing to the difference in the nature of the relationship,

¹ *Educational Essays*, p. 135.

he cannot accept their criticisms or benefit from them in the same spirit, nor can he maintain the same attitude of natural freedom in his work done before them as in the case of his training college instructors.

For School Practice, it is desirable that every training institution should have one or two demonstration schools under its control. In these, besides the usual practice and demonstration, practical trials and experiments on teaching methods, school-administration, discipline and so on may be carried out; for it is the duty of the training college to plan and encourage such practical experiments, instead of keeping itself confined to the traditional methods alone. The amount of school practice available at the demonstration school would be very little in comparison with the needs, and so a group of other schools will be required, which are ready, competent and well-equipped enough to co-operate with the training college in this matter.

The direction and supervision of the practical teaching, as conducted at present, are under the training college, and sometimes the headmaster of the school in which the practice takes place is asked to give some help in the task. It is desirable that a greater share of help and co-operation in this matter should be sought from the headmaster as well as the senior specialist teachers of the staff of the practising school. They are, it is assumed, trained men of recognized efficiency and experience, and are actively engaged in daily school-teaching and administration: so they can substantially relieve the supervisory work of the training institution. It has been repeatedly suggested by competent authorities, as we shall see later, that the amount of school practice usually put in by students in training should be greatly increased, and if it is done, such relief would become necessary. Besides, if selected teachers of the school are offered a share in the

work of the training college, they become actively interested in the students it sends up and their teaching. They offer their co-operation willingly and they can be of great assistance in many little aids which cannot be rendered by an outsider, however competent and experienced he may be. For the school, what little inconvenience it has, which interferes with its normal routine through having to provide for the training college students, can be compensated for by the teaching work done by the students if the school is allowed to participate in the planning of the work. As the *University Education Commission Report* remarks in this connexion, "Almost all schools suffer from excessive routine, and the infusion of a little temporary new blood from time to time in the form of students practising is good for all parties concerned, not merely the students but the teachers and the children."¹

Besides class teaching by the students, the course in school practice should also include demonstration lessons by specialist lecturers, as has been previously mentioned, and discussion-lessons both by lecturers and students, to be followed by joint criticism. Besides this there should be observation visits to different types of educational institutions and places of educational interest. These may include schools for mentally and physically retarded children, nursery schools, schools conducted on special experimental lines, psychological laboratories, child-guidance clinics and such other institutions. These visits, to be really fruitful, should be methodically organized and planned. They are to be conducted by members of the staff, who should explain beforehand the special features of the institution, and, after the visit, there should be mutual discussion and exchange of impressions. Besides visits, school practice should include necessary

¹ *Report of the University Education Commission*, pp. 213-4.

training in other forms of school duties, such as preparation of time-tables, keeping progress records, organizing tests and examinations and preparation of educational materials.

The duration of the school practice is also an important consideration. It should be of sufficient length to enable the student to work out some of the principles mastered by him, and to gain a fairly wide practical acquaintance with school-teaching. This essential condition, however, is very often neglected. Some may think that just because the student will get enough opportunity of teaching afterwards on his appointment as a teacher, his school practice during the training can be reduced, but this is a grievous mistake. As we have pointed out above, the supervised teaching done by the student is one of the most valuable features of his preparation as a teacher, and no amount of unguided teaching can take its place. As is well known to training-college teachers, students who come up for training after some years of service at schools have often to unlearn some of the defective ways and techniques previously acquired by them through want of proper advice. As the University Education Commission remarks, "unguided practice, or the unintelligent following of rule-of-thumb methods may do the beginner more harm than good, and is all the more likely to make him close his eyes permanently to all the satisfying elements in teaching as a worth-while and life-long vocation."¹ So the importance of adequate teaching practice, with constant criticism and advice, during the training of the teacher, must not be underestimated. There are no prescribed uniform rules for the length of school practice at present. Thus, though it is usual to have three or four weeks' practice in a year's course, there are training institutions which do with much less. The University Education Commission observes that in many of

the existing training courses "too little time is given to school practice, too little time is given to practice in assessing the student's performance and conditions of school practice are often unsatisfactory, sometimes grossly unsatisfactory. In some places a student is required to give only five lessons during the whole of his course."¹ About the desirable length of school practice, the Commission says, "We consider that in a year's course not less than twelve weeks should be spent by the student in supervised school practice." It is extremely doubtful whether in the present overcrowded programme of one year's training it can be possible to allot three weeks to it, but owing to its profound importance in the teachers' training course, it must be given the maximum time available. It may be instructive to note in this connexion that in England, in the two-year undergraduate courses so long in vogue, the prescribed minimum period of school practice was twelve weeks. In the recently extended three-year courses, the period of school practice has also been increased. Thus, first there should be twelve weeks of practice "spread in periods of varying lengths over the first two years of the course."² Secondly, there should be a continuous period of school teaching lasting one full term, or about three months, at an advanced stage of the training. This arrangement is made so that the student who has nearly completed his theoretical and practical training, and is shortly going to be enlisted as a teacher may teach in the school and enter into its life in settled conditions and continuity. The value of such a provision can be appreciated in the light of our foregoing remarks on school practice.

About the duration of the training itself, the usual period in our country is one year, although in a few places, it extends

¹ *Report*, p. 213.

² *Teachers and Youth Leaders (MacNair Report)*, p. 78.

over a longer period, even up to two years. One year is too short; this has been realized by educational authorities everywhere and attempts are being made to extend the period. The curriculum for training is fairly heavy and comprises a variety of subjects: for a good mastery over them, as also for better and longer practice in schools, such extension is extremely necessary. In this matter, the recommendations of the Secondary Education Commission are very valuable, and are to be fully endorsed and put into execution. It states that undergraduate courses of training should be of two years' duration, and consist of both general and professional studies. Until the existing courses are converted to two-year ones, students, before their admission to the training college, "may be given opportunities to study some selected books", as preparatory work; also "the period of training may be increased to a minimum of 180 days by eliminating the number of unnecessary holidays."¹ These important and practical suggestions should be accepted and followed by all training institutions. For graduate teachers, the Commission suggests the extension of the course to two years as a long-term programme; but as, owing to various practical considerations, this is not immediately possible, the existing one-year training should remain for the present.

Mention must also be made for the need of research in different branches of education. Pedagogy, like other sciences, cannot remain static or complacent with the achievements already made; there must always be new ideas, and constant experimental research in educational methods, curriculum, scholastic tests, progress records, extra-curricular activities and other branches of teaching and organization, should be conducted widely. In education, the amount of original work done in India is very little, and in it we have to depend

¹ *Report*, p. 171.

mainly on the findings of foreign educational investigators. The main reason is that this important branch of study has not so far received encouragement from educational authorities in our country. But there are two very weighty reasons why higher research in education is essential in our country. In the first place, school education in India presents certain problems and peculiarities of its own. They must be studied and systematically analysed in their own setting, and the conclusions obtained thus may have a significance to us which would not be found in studies undertaken elsewhere. Secondly, there is such a vast field for investigation and large amount of data comprising interesting problems of every kind ready before us, that it would be a regrettable waste of valuable opportunity if essential researches were not undertaken on different aspects of education. In many of the Indian universities the Master's degree in Education, which usually necessitates original research, has been instituted; and doctorates in Education, too, have been introduced. Centres of advanced research in Education and Educational Psychology have been set up by Government in Allahabad, Patna, Calcutta and other cities; and the Central Institute of Education has been established in Delhi to carry out constructive research in Education. It is to be hoped that earnest effort will be made at all these institutions to explore the various spheres of investigation before them and carry on research with originality and enterprise, so that they may be able to make contributions of abiding value in the field of Education, and awaken countrywide interest in educational problems.

CHAPTER XVI

THE ADMINISTRATION

IN THE previous chapter, the contents of the work at the training college and the correct mode of approach to it have been discussed. We shall now take up certain other aspects of its functions and administration, and consider what adjustments and changes are required in the present arrangement in order that our training institutions may realize the objectives mentioned therein.

The social implications of the work done by the training institution, as referred to earlier, may be examined in greater detail now. In our school education, social considerations are of very great significance today. As Tagore said, "The school which cannot become one with the society around and is thrust on the society from outside is dull and lifeless."¹

We have seen previously that in the Basic scheme of education the ideals of communal service and co-operative activity are regarded as highly important in the training of teachers. The whole existing teachers' training organization should be reviewed and recast so that it can effectively fulfil this objective. As John Dewey has observed, "The only way to prepare for social life is to engage in social life." The young teachers in training should be encouraged to take part jointly in social activities, in both the institution itself and in the life of the community around. The atmosphere of the training institution should be such that the students have every opportunity of developing the habits of self-reliance and co-operative enterprise of every form with a constructive outlook and a sense of the dignity of labour.

Such a training is not possible except in a residential

¹ *Siksha-samasya*.

system of education. In England and other Western countries, training colleges are mostly residential. In our country, too, experience has shown that residential training produces better, more zealous and efficient teachers, and it should be widely encouraged. Residence in a hostel alone can provide the necessary conditions for developing social life and activity. Tasks connected with the running of the hostel, its meals, its sanitation and cleanliness, its various extra-curricular activities, its cultural and festive celebrations and its social service outside the institution, properly guided on a co-operative basis; all these would promote this very satisfactorily. Apart from this, the prescribed studies and activities in the teachers' training courses, especially in their present short duration, are so vast and absorbing that undisturbed and wholehearted application to work becomes essentially necessary, and this can be possible only in residential study. We quote the views of the Secondary Education Commission in this connexion, "The time at the disposal of the student-teacher, whether in the second grade or the graduate grade, is so limited that his whole time should be devoted to the study of various aspects of education, school life, community life, administration, etc. Life in the training institutions should be a guide to the activities in the school with the pupils. We wish, therefore, to emphasize that this community life in the training institutions, the devotion to the various activities that can be attempted in such institutions and the free mixing of the student-teachers themselves in all social and useful activities both in the school community as well as in the community life of the area where the school is situated, would best be promoted by a residential system of training. We, therefore, strongly advocate a residential type of training institutions for all students."¹

¹ *Report*, pp. 171-2.

Closely related to the above is the question of the size and situation of the training college. In order that it may be engrossed in an intensive and well-planned programme, and that its social life, particularly under a residential system, may be homogeneous and easy of control, it is necessary that the number of students should not be too large. At an approximate estimate, an enrolment of 150 may be fixed as the limit. In India, the training colleges at present are not troubled with the problem of excessive numbers of students like many of the Arts and Science colleges. The numbers at the largest of the training institutions seldom exceed 200, whereas the usual number is less than 100. So there is no difficulty of overcrowding in them, although the accommodation and provisions even for the existing numbers are often inadequate. As regards site, the same considerations of wholehearted work and study and the development of corporate spirit render it desirable that the training college should be situated within its own quiet and secluded boundary, although not so far away as to be cut off from the cultural life and associations of the community. A good situation would be the outskirts of a town with a university or colleges in it, or, for rural institutions, a central position with a group of villages around, which should be within easy reach of such a town. Along with this, there should be plentiful provision of objects and materials essential to the work. Useful appliances and apparatus should be regularly used. The library must be well equipped, and there should be good accommodation and facility for library study.

A most important consideration would be the qualifications and suitability of entrants to the training college. There is hardly any need to repeat, as has been frequently pointed out previously, that those who are going to be charged with the task of educating the country's children should be persons

of deserving merit and character; but in point of fact, this principle, like the high ideal of the teacher's status, is much more expressed than acted upon in our country. It has already been mentioned that the qualifications of our teachers are poor, and these, with the amenities they get, must be raised. This will be greatly assisted if only the right type of people are selected for admission to the training college, judged on considerations of their educational attainments as well as potential fitness for the task of teaching. By such means alone can we satisfy ourselves that those who are enrolled for training as teachers can properly and fully assimilate their training, and later when they take up teaching, will be able to render such efficient service as their training college expects them to do. As the Secondary Education Commission aptly remarks, "We cannot afford to waste money on training people who have not the makings of good teachers."¹ With the universal extension of teachers' training in our country, let it be hoped, a time will soon come when no person without training will be appointed as a teacher, as in other advanced countries. So the training college can, and should, render the required co-operation to the educational authorities in securing able teachers; for the fact that everyone who is sent out by the training college has passed through a process of careful selection, based on the expert knowledge and devices at its disposal, would ensure that the abler persons only will remain and others be eliminated.

The question how and on what basis the selection is to be made is of singular importance and deserves our careful attention. Our usual and quite practical approach to the problem is that suitable candidates are first selected on the basis of their academic achievements, experience and other merits; then they are interviewed and the impression which

¹ *Report*, p. 170.

we form of them at the interview guides us in estimating whether they will be good teachers or not. Those who proceed with special care and caution would put them to further detailed tests, and if necessary, they may be even made to give a practical demonstration of their skill in teaching a class. When all this is done, we naturally feel satisfied that the right selection has been made.

But our experience later often belies the expectation, and a closer consideration would show that such an expectation is unjustified. All the processes which have been referred to just now are not usually gone through; but even if, as an extreme measure, they are all gone through with reasonable care and caution, there is no guarantee that a really correct choice would be made. In order to understand this, we have to analyse the nature of each of these processes, considering how far and in what manner they can be profitably applied in discovering a person's latent potentiality as a teacher; and some of the investigations, too, that have been carried out in this matter, will have to be reviewed.

Before entering into a discussion of methods and tests, we must take up one important practical factor in the work of selection. It is this, that the persons who are entrusted with the task should themselves possess specific competence for it. They must know by what methods the selection is to be made and how to apply those methods. They must have a clear idea as to what qualities are desirable in the candidates, and what are not (positive and negative traits) and what kind of "impression" made by the candidate at an interview may be deemed satisfactory. This requires expert technical knowledge and experience in this matter, and indeed the selection of teachers is the work of experts, such as are engaged in training college teaching or higher educational administration. If the selection is conducted by persons

without such special skill, as is very often done, there will be every chance of a mistake. They may be highly distinguished men in other walks of life, and their experience and knowledge of men may help them to make a general assessment of merits correctly; but in regard to the specific traits to be discovered in the future teacher, their estimates would not be dependable. That such errors are being constantly made is known to those whose work lies with teachers.

The right selection of teachers is so important, and at the same time, so intricate, that it has persistently occupied the attention of experts in educationally advanced countries, particularly in England and America. Eminent specialists in these countries have been working for a considerable period of time on the discovery of accurate methods for assessing teaching ability and personality traits in the future teacher. We shall mention very briefly a few of them here, and discuss what broad practical guidance they can supply us.

Generally speaking, the earlier workers laid greater stress on pedagogical traits, and the recent ones on factors of personality and teacher-pupil relations. In 1921, Prof. Godfrey H. Thomson, whose contributions to various intricate problems of education are invaluable to us, made a list of the qualities as "care in preparation; logical explanation and questioning; blackboard and other illustrations; voice, manner and power of arousing enthusiasm; power of interesting children, keeping them busy and getting results." Prof. A. S. Barr thus enumerated the various aspects of pedagogical ability, in a rating-scale made a few years back, "personality qualities of the teacher; competences or class-room behaviour, knowledge, skills, attitudes or ideals, i.e. factors that control behaviour; desirable outcomes, such as pupil-achievement and growth; and miscellaneous." The obvious

difficulty of applying this kind of scale is the subjective factor of the tester, that is, when different persons apply them to the same case, there may be variations in the results obtained, depending on the personal elements of the testers themselves. For, although full tests of questionnaires have been prepared by the authors of these tests, and adequate guidance has been given as to the assessment of the results, the subjective attitude of the tester is bound to affect the scoring.

Many other methods have been formulated, in some of which the above difficulties have to some extent been eliminated. One of them, the "Critical Incidents Technique", starts with a representative collection of objective accounts of good and bad class-teaching; from this a sampling of correct teacher-behaviour is made, classified under the heads personal, professional and social. Another method of selection is based on the opinion of the pupils themselves regarding the qualities they like best. Another very widely tried method is assessment through the improvement worked on the pupils; the qualities in the teacher which are directly responsible for bringing about the maximum progress in the pupils within a specified period have been experimentally ascertained and rating-scales have been prepared on that basis.

Full details regarding what questions and tests are to be used, what special conditions are to be maintained and how the results are to be evaluated correctly have been worked out by the originators of these and a host of other methods devised and tried so far. We need not multiply the instances. The ones mentioned above at least tell us that the factors involved in prognosticating a person's success as a schoolteacher are numerous and various, and we cannot very well ignore one or the other. The American Council of Education, which has done prolonged and valuable work in this and other branches of educational investigation,

observes that good teachers cannot be selected from records, tests or interviews alone, but every possible consideration must be taken into account. The best way of utilizing these various techniques, for a skilled and experienced tester, would be to take up those which are best suitable to the conditions in which he is working. He must also supplement them with some of the traditional devices like trials and interviews. The interview is an easy, practical and widely used method of selection, based on direct personal contact; but as a test, it is not reliable by itself. Devices have been worked out to render it free from some of its inherent defects, and they will be discussed later on. The following observations made by Prof. O. S. Vernon of London University are interesting in this connexion, "Neither school-recommendations nor interviewers' judgments can be expected to give good predictions of the personality qualities needed in the class-room. Nor would the assessment of personality by a psychologist or a psychiatrist, with or without the assistance of personality and interest questionnaires, projection or other tests, add much, in our present state of knowledge. Probably the most effective method would be to arrange for a month's trial run, with the students in residence at a training college. The final decision to accept should be based on the combination of at least three tutors' or supervisors' observations (so as to reduce the personal element in assessment), on fellow students' and warden's ratings, and particularly on each student's self-analysis of his reaction to his initial teaching experiences."¹

We may now consider in a general manner a very common and practical device, namely, the interview, which is constantly used in the selection not only of teachers but of recruits in every other walk of life. We meet a person at an

¹ *Year Book of Education*, 1953, pp. 74-5.

interview, and put some necessary questions to him; we are satisfied with his answers as also with the general impression he makes on us, and he is selected. But a little thought will show that the judgment based on an interview alone is very far from reliable. In the first place, the subjective element, which has been referred to above, reigns supreme in it; the impressions are bound to vary with different interviewers, or, perhaps with the changing moods of the same interviewer. The most confident and self-assured of men even, would hesitate to claim that he can intuitively form a correct estimate of a person's merits and possibilities after a short interview. Again, it is a fact of common experience that although a person has real ability and sincerity, these do not readily appear on the surface, especially in the psychological situation which an interview creates for him. Such persons would be underestimated and misjudged on the results of an interview. We constantly find that those who merely possess forwardness, the dashing and "smart" type usually do better in interviews than their quiet and shy fellow-beings, who notwithstanding, may have superior intelligence, merits and character. It is true that trained and experienced eyes can often see through these outside appearances; but unless we are particularly careful, there should be a big chance of error, as, for instance, when the flustered candidate, under the stress of the moment, gives wrong and foolish answers, perhaps fully realizing in his own mind, in acute discomfort, that they are so. Also, we have to bear in mind the shortness of the time usually devoted to interviews. A meeting with a person lasting about fifteen minutes is hardly enough for making even an approximately correct estimate of his abilities. A much longer time devoted to questions and also careful observation "in work and play" is essential.

It is necessary to keep in view all these limitations in the

system of interview, so that we can have a clear idea as to what degree of reliability can be placed on it in discovering teachers' potential traits and how it can be rightly used with fair effectiveness and accuracy. Prof. C. W. Valentine, who has carried out some outstanding researches in this and allied branches of education, mentions an interesting experiment. Two boards, each composed of four or five eminent educationists, successively interviewed a group of sixteen graduates, in which their alertness, intelligence and intellectual outlook were tested. The scores showed that the man placed at the top by the first board was put thirteenth by the second board, while the person who ranked first before the second board was eleventh according to the other. Prof. Valentine goes on to remark, "the ordinary interview is a most unreliable means of estimating the personality or character of an individual whether child or adult. But the technique of the ordinary interview can be considerably improved."¹ The work done by him as well as by other competent investigators, such as Sir Cyril Burt, has conclusively proved that such improvement can be effected, for instance, with a clear and precise definition of the qualities looked for, and with the help of tests, by prolonging the duration of the interview, by fixing approximate standards as to the questions to be asked as also the answers that are to be deemed as correct, by providing situations which would put the candidates at their ease and by holding not one interview but two or three, under different competent authorities so that the average of the scores may be obtained and used. It must also be always supplemented with suitable tests.

Another very important question in training college administration is the qualification of its staff. Great care should be taken in selecting them. They should be men possessing

¹ *Psychology and its Bearing on Education*, p. 370.

scholarship as well as wide acquaintance with educational methods and administration on a practical basis, without which they cannot inspire in the minds of their pupils the spirit of the vocation for which they are being prepared. It has been seen in the previous chapter that all the studies of the training college must have a practical bias, with full regard to the actual needs and conditions of the school and its everyday administration. For this reason, it is necessary that the teaching staff of the training college, particularly those who are concerned with such subjects as Methods of Teaching, Principles of Education, and School Practice should, besides possessing sound academic and professional qualifications, also have extensive experience of school teaching and organization. The University Education Commission, which has made some pertinent observations on this matter, thus states in its Report, "The bulk of the staff, including emphatically the lecturers in Education and in Method must be able to speak from first-hand experience of school teaching if they are to command the respect of their students and to have any chance of convincing them that they are entering a noble career."¹ As the number of people fulfilling this double requirement is not very great, the task of securing the right kind of teachers for the training college is always difficult, but the quality of the staff, judged on this standard, greatly affects the standard of the work done in the training college. The Commission noticed great differences in this respect in different training colleges and it says, "In some, all the staff had had school experience. In others, not one of the staff had been a school teacher, and naturally enough in the circumstances, they saw no reason why they should have such an experience."²

One practical suggestion for the solution of this problem

¹ *Report*, p. 214.

² *Ibid.* pp. 214-15.

is this. It is rare, but not quite unusual, to find in our secondary schools, young teachers who besides possessing very sound educational and professional qualifications, also have a taste for study and research. Such teachers should be marked out, and after a few years' work in the school, should be given the chance of being appointed to a training college. The main reason which has prevented people of first-class merit from accepting service in schools is, as we have seen before, the low remuneration attached to it. With adequate improvement in that sphere, more and more of such persons will be drawn to schools, and thus the field of recruitment to the training colleges will be widened; it may be said that we can already notice a slight change in this direction. Insistence on school experience as a prerequisite to appointment at a training college, is the surest and most direct way of persuading qualified aspirants to equip themselves with it; as the University Education Commission observes, "If it is argued that, as things are, it is difficult to find school teachers intellectually capable of holding lecturers' posts, the answer must be that nothing would so quickly rectify this state of affairs as the knowledge that you could not hope to be a lecturer or professor in education unless you had started by teaching in a school."¹

Besides, teachers recruited from schools, the persons who obtain the newly instituted research degrees in our universities, mentioned in the previous chapter, which usually insist on adequate school experience as a condition of admission, would also provide very suitable material for training college teaching. Secondment or exchange of teachers with good schools for short periods, too, is a good device.

Reference must be made to the payment of the training college staff, too. Persons of really good qualifications, as

¹ Ibid. p. 215.

described above, will not enter the service of training colleges unless the pay is enough. In teachers' training, though the Government post-graduate institutions and university colleges and departments offer fairly good salaries, the general pay-level outside, especially in primary training, is highly unsatisfactory. It is not so low as that of the school-teachers, but this is perhaps all that can be said in its favour. The Sargent Report mentioned cases of teachers of training institutions drawing a salary of Rs 30/- per month and conditions have not improved much since then. Generous enhancement is necessary. It is desirable that, since these institutions are meant for students who are at least matriculates, their scales should be the same as that of other post-secondary institutions.

A discussion of the qualifications of the training college staff naturally leads us to consider at least in a general way, what their mode of instruction should be. As the training college instructs its students in principles and methods of teaching, it is only to be expected that its own methods should be satisfactory; if such a statement should sound commonplace, it is cool commonsense, too. The usual belief that teaching staff at the higher educational institutions, like colleges and universities, and themselves possessing scholarly attainments, need not be concerned with methods, which will take care of themselves, is not correct. As Prof. M. L. Jacks of Oxford University observes, "The suggestion that a university teacher should be trained has always been unpopular in University circles. There has been a tacit and a strange assumption that the man who has proved himself, by winning distinction in an Honours School, to be a good learner (and possibly a good teacher), will *ipso facto* be a good teacher... What warrant is there for this belief? Most students who have attended university lectures

do not share it.”¹ There are several important reasons why the technique of instruction in the training college should receive very special attention. The curriculum of the training course, as we have seen, is not only very large and exacting, but also composed of mixed elements, in which unity is to be effected. The duration of the course, even when increased to two years, would hardly be overmuch, and so the adoption of sound and economical methods alone can ensure a satisfactory mastery of it within the limited period. Then again, the training which is given to teachers, particularly in our country, is often criticized as being impractical and even useless, having no utility outside the walls of the training institution itself. We shall examine this question in greater length later on; but we must note here that, so far as training college teaching is concerned, such censure is very likely to creep in unless the right approach is made. So extensive is the variety of the subjects within the course, that a teacher, even the best among them, has to guard himself against the risk of being carried away by the zeal of his own particular subject and losing sight of the essentially professional character of the training. The subjects in the training syllabus are not to be treated as separate studies, but should be integrated round the central objective of the school, its activities and ideals. Besides, the entire training course, including even its theoretical part, is fundamentally practical in basis; and this must always be the guiding principle in the manner of its presentation. Of course, with a properly qualified staff, possessing along with their academic qualifications, adequate experience of school conditions, too, there will be a considerable assurance that they would be able to employ the right methods. But unless the central objective is constantly kept in view, the most competent

¹ *Total Education*, p. 213.

and experienced of teachers may go wrong. The University Education Commission has thus warned training college teachers against this danger, "If they are not continually aware of the professional needs of their students, their students will rightly feel that there is no unity in the course and that different specialists are simply trying to drag them in different directions, and this in a course whose length is all too short for what must find a place therein."¹

In training colleges, besides, class-instruction in which, as has already been said, the practical aspect of the course must be emphasized. There should be plenty of room² for discussions on concrete problems under proper guidance. The traditional practice of teaching in colleges exclusively through lectures is losing its hold in progressive systems of education, and especially in the training of teachers; it has to be supplemented greatly by other forms of instruction which exercise the student's individual judgment, self-expression and desire to work on his own. Thus the MacNair Committee Report says, "In general, there should be few formal lectures. The work should be done mainly in the way of small classes and discussion groups."² The lectures themselves must be based on a careful study of the capacities and professional needs of the pupil. They should above all create in his mind the constant desire to discover new ideas and acquire fresh knowledge, and apply them whenever he finds an opportunity to do so. This, after all, is the ideal which he has to keep in view in his later work as a teacher of young boys, and which he has to instil in them. As Prof. A.N. Whitehead says, "From the very beginning the child should experience the joy of discovery. The discovery which he has to make is

¹ *University Education Commission Report*, p. 212.

² *MacNair Committee Report*, p. 74.

that general ideas give an understanding of that stream of events which forms through his life, which is his life.”¹

Tutorial classes, with small groups of students, should form a valuable feature of training college work. Even the tutorial system prevailing in England in which each student is attached to a tutor, who remains his educational mentor should be introduced wherever possible, with necessary modifications. Library study should be encouraged, on a systematic basis and under due guidance. Practical teaching is also of great importance, and it has been fully discussed already.

With the gradual expansion of teachers' training, some co-ordination in the different courses is necessary. The courses for teachers, as has been stated, display a great range of variety. There is training for primary and middle-school teachers, and also graduate teachers; and there are the recently organized Basic training institutions for ordinary teachers, as also for graduates. Their syllabus, organization and examination are different, varying widely from place to place. The utter confusion which exists in them is seldom to be seen in any other sphere of education in our country. If this confused state of things is allowed to continue, no uniformity of standard can possibly be attained. But some standardization has become essentially necessary in the interests of a qualitative improvement of the training itself. With increased emphasis on success at the Matriculation examination as the minimum educational qualification necessary for admission to the training institution, the matter should be put on a proper and standardized basis. Clearly, there should be two types of training, both for Basic and ordinary teachers; the first for matriculates or undergraduates, and the second for graduates. Both these forms of

¹ *Aims of Education*, p. 3.

training may be given at the same institution, but as the demand for undergraduate teachers is much greater, a very large number of institutions intended exclusively for their training is necessary. Some of these, belonging to both types, must have provision for special training in particular branches, such as nursery education.

In this connexion, it should be noted that the present designation of training schools for institutions meant for primary or Basic teachers, is wrong, and should be changed. The term "training school" or "normal school" came into use in the early days of our educational development under British rule. It originated from the continental *école normale*; and in England it was used for some time to denote training institutions of an elementary type and was discarded long ago; and all these institutions became generally known as teachers' training colleges. In this country, the name "training school" was allowed to stay, and when candidates with very poor education came for training and the deficiency of their school education had to be made up, the name was justified, too. But in the present state of educational advance, for an institution which trains matriculates and persons of higher qualifications and provides a fairly high and specialized form of post-secondary education, the name "training school" is both misleading and degrading. All such institutions, therefore, should be designated as teachers' training colleges, and those which are meant for graduates only may be distinguished by the prefix "post-graduate" added to their name.

In the administration of training, also, there is no co-ordination at present. Undergraduate training is usually under the control of the Government or of different local boards, which often varies from one region to another; the charge of post-graduate training is jointly shared by the

Government and the universities. The system is quite lacking in co-ordination and uniformity and should be reformed. On this question, the recommendation of the Secondary Education Commission is extremely valuable. It suggests that training colleges for graduates should be affiliated to and controlled by universities; and other training institutions, which will rapidly grow in numbers, should be administered by a competent board separately appointed for the purpose.

Such a change of organization has become urgently necessary now, for the sake of uniformity as well as of improving the standard of efficiency in the increasing number of teachers' training institutions of our country. In some of the Western countries, the entire administration of the training of teachers is carried out by the universities. Here in India, such a system is not possible for, in most states, the number of universities is limited, and having a heavy burden of functions and responsibilities of their own already, they cannot be expected to control and guide successfully the huge number of training institutions required for our teachers. So the task of training graduates only can be undertaken by them, and the bigger share of training other teachers will devolve on the board, which should maintain an active touch with the schools and the education department, as also with the universities in respect of the training of graduate teachers. The board should direct and control the undergraduate training in the whole state, including the drawing-up of syllabuses, affiliation of institutions, the framing of rules regarding staff equipments, buildings and other matters and the conduct of examinations. They should, also, maintain co-ordination with the training schemes carried out in other States.

As regards examinations in training, too, the issue has to

be reviewed in a new light. It is well known that education in our land has been overburdened with examinations, the courses and syllabuses, the students and their guardians, the teaching and the teachers are led primarily by the consideration of securing a pass at the examination at any cost. Students sacrifice their real education, the proper mastery and assimilation of their courses, the formation of good habits, in the interests of just cramming up their subjects to achieve success at the examination somehow. Teachers are obliged to teach their subjects not with a view to giving students a real interest in and understanding of them, or to help them in attaining real proficiency in the profession for which the studies are intended; their task often becomes only to guide the students to the short cut to success at their examination. This unbalanced craze for examinations, though eloquently condemned by English educationists and critics, is really a relic of the old days of British administration, when people had to scrape through their examinations in order to get posts as English-knowing clerks. Now with the conditions and outlook changed, this undue emphasis on examinations should pass. No doubt, examinations have to be retained as our essential feature in the educational system for the assessment of standards and for the guidance of both the teacher and the taught regarding the gradual improvement attained by the latter. But education is the supreme end, while the passing of examinations is only subsidiary to it, and to consider it as the end of education, as has been done, is bound to frustrate the education itself.

Besides the objective of the examination, modern educational investigators have suggested some essential reforms in the actual examination itself. These concern all aspects of the problem, including the type of question to be set, the assessment of answers and the organization of examinations.

An examination, in order to fulfil its purpose, must be definite as to what it intends to examine; it must be able to do so on a comprehensive, fair and reliable basis, too. It should depend neither on the personal bias of the examiner, nor on the passive receptivity of the examinee. The traditional system of examinations does not fulfil these conditions. In particular, the central feature of the present examinations, namely, the assessment of ability from essay-type answers, has been bitterly criticized. Its outstanding defect is the subjective element involved in it, that is the variable personal factors of the examiners concerned are bound to affect the result. The accurate marking of essays is an eternal problem to all teachers. They are both vague and difficult to score, and the standards are likely to deviate to the widest degree. Prof. C. W. Valentine speaks of an experiment in which 17 essays were marked by five examiners independently. It was found that one particular essay was placed second by one, third by two, thirteenth by one, and actually sixteenth by one of the examiners. Besides this well-known difficulty of correct scoring, they attach the entire importance to the ability of written composition, ignoring other important qualities, which certainly is not right, particularly in the training of teachers. Moreover, they usually foster cramming, at the expense of critical understanding and exercise of judgment. The University Education Commission summarily expresses its verdict on the essay-type of examination thus, "It has usually no clearly defined purpose; it is therefore invalid. Its sampling is very arbitrary and limited; it is inadequate. Its scoring is subjective and therefore not reliable."¹ However, it has some balancing advantages, too, particularly in higher education. It is easy to apply, and can be used in all parts of the curriculum, and can measure certain factors

¹ *University Education Commission Report*, p. 336.

which cannot be measured by any other form of test. So it cannot be discarded, but when using it, every effort must be made to eliminate its defects. Questions should be set which may test the examinee's intelligent grasp of what he has learnt, and his independent thinking more than his acquired knowledge; and in the marking of answers, too, approximately correct standards should be carefully thought out and adhered to, as far as possible. As the University Education Commission says, "The emphasis in this type of examination should be expressly on thought, acute reasoning, critical exposition, creative interpretation and other types of mental activity in relation to the materials of the course."¹ Also, very careful effort should be made to lessen its besetting drawbacks of subjectivity and unreliable scoring, for recent experimental researches have conclusively demonstrated that, with due precautions, this can be done; these should be studied by all examining authorities. Over and above, instead of being used exclusively, this form of examination must be amply supplemented with the application of objective tests of a more specific and dependable nature. The invention and use of objective methods of measurement are among the assets of modern educational development and they should be fully utilized for improving the traditional procedure of examination. The latest educational research in the West, especially in America, has put at our disposal very valuable collections of such tests, to meet all purposes, and particularly useful in the sphere of the training of teachers. These have only to be adapted to suit our needs and put into use. These objective techniques can be used to great advantage not only in examinations for teachers' training, but, as has been previously noted, in selecting candidates for admission to it. It should be the earnest endeavour of our

¹ Ibid.

newly established institutions for educational research as well as training colleges and departments doing advanced work in psychological investigation, to make suitable adaptations of the available tests and devise new ones, so that they can be widely adopted on a systematic and graded basis. A great deal of useful research work is awaiting to be performed in this direction.

Along with the usual examinations and tests, due credit should be given to the student's class record throughout the course; especially practical work done in the schools, which constitutes such a necessary part of the training of teachers, must be accorded its full share of importance. Due recognition in the examination should also be paid particularly in advanced training, to any new method, plan or experiment which the student has or any original contribution to educational thought or practice which he has endeavoured to make, and has shown some intelligence, depth and seriousness in course of the work. This alone can promote the spirit of initiative and experiment in the intending teacher, which should draw him out of the limitations of traditional rule of these methods.

Such an examination as detailed above, which has to take into consideration so many different factors, must necessarily be more lengthy and laborious. But once set properly on a systematic practice, it will not be as difficult as it appears; and will certainly be much sounder and more dependable than the present formal examination, which furthers unintelligent memorization and fails to produce reliable scores even of it.

Before concluding, we must consider the criticism, frequently made of our teachers' training, that it is unreal and unnecessary and its practical application is neither made nor aimed at. Often it comes from persons who cannot get out

of the wrong notion, mentioned at the beginning, that a good general education is all that is required of the schoolmaster, and are prejudiced against his training. But leaving such a view aside, it must be admitted that the training itself has much room for criticism, and also for improvement. We should bear in mind that teachers' training is a comparatively new feature in our education and that only in recent years has it gained a foothold in our educational organization. If the general higher education in this country, which had the advantage of being tried through a longer period and on a much bigger scale, is not free from defect, it is not to be expected that the training of teachers, more recent and undeveloped, should be faultless. It is the duty of every one concerned to study these defects and work steadily to remove them. The difficulties under which the training institutions have to work are many. They do not often get proper appliances, apparatus and buildings. Their staff in many cases is not properly qualified and paid. Public interest in them is limited. One of the greatest drawbacks is that the students who are trained there get very little chance of putting into practice the ideas acquired by them. The equipment and materials are mostly unsatisfactory, but what is more, the authorities of the schools in many cases, not having awakened to the importance of training as yet, do not give them the necessary encouragement. Cases are not rare when the young teacher, fresh from the training college and eager to apply some of his pedagogical principles, actually becomes the object of fun or apathy of his less progressive colleagues and superiors. After some such attempts, the original enthusiasm slowly wears off. It is borne out by the experience of most training college teachers that there is usually no lack of readiness and zeal on the part of their students to learn and

practise improved methods of instruction, but through want of systematic encouragement and support, the desired objective is missed.

It is often said that what the training college teaches is not always feasible in the practical field. This is no argument at all; for if it were to teach just those means and methods which are applicable to the present imperfect condition of our schools, with their unsatisfactory equipment, staff and accommodation, with children who often get neither the physical nourishment nor the mental care which they require, the training college would have very little justification for existence. It is the task of the training college to point out the best methods, to teach the use of the most suitable materials and appliances, so long as they are practical and possible of application. The teacher may not have the opportunity of using them in a full and perfect manner, but he will always find a way of modifying them to suit his circumstances. This is what must receive the special attention of our training institutions. If they can train their students in the right modes of practical pedagogy, and create in them the zeal to execute them even in an unfavourable environment, their objective will be served. A workman who has mastered the correct method of his vocation can construct something even when he is working with bad tools and materials, whereas the person who has attained no such skill cannot achieve any success even when the conditions are of the best. Therefore, the chief concern of the training college is to train the future teacher in ideas, principles and activities which are essential to his vocation and are practical. If some part or other of this teaching is not applicable in the conditions existing in our educational system just now, that does not detract from its value. It must be remembered that in the sphere of education, at least, the right ideal has always

to be upheld whatever be the circumstances prevailing around us. As Sir Percy Nunn said, after expounding on educational ideals which have rarely been excelled, "It is the proper function of an ideal to point beyond the range of present possibility. The only question really relevant is whether it points in the right direction."¹ If our training institutions can show the right way to future teachers, in a practical, constructive and convincing manner, then, and then alone, the great obligation which they owe to the community will be discharged.

¹ *Education, its Data and First Principles*, Revised Edition, p. 275.

APPENDIX I

HEADINGS FOR STUDY OF A CHILD

Name.....
Age
School.....
Class Teacher.....
Position in the family.....
Any circumstances you know about the home and parents.

Physical Development

General appearance and physique.
Height and weight in relation to others of the same age.
Signs of care or neglect. (Hair, teeth, clothing).
Type of movements. (Clumsy or skilful, restless, active, etc.)
Muscular control. (Shown in skill with hands, etc.)
Ability to relax.
Personal habits and mannerisms.
Speech. (Clear and distinct or the reverse).
Serious illnesses in his history or physical defects.
Attractive physically or not.

Intellectual Development

Age in relation to class.
Does he seem more or less advanced or about the same as others in the class, and in what respects?
Give any examples you have seen of his showing:
(a) Initiative (in classroom or playground).
(b) (i) Reasoning (in words).
(ii) Reasoning (in practical ways, e.g. by adapting objects to his purposes).
(c) Imagination (i) "Make-believe".
(ii) Showing he can call up images of objects not actually present.

- (d) Attention and interest. What things attract the most absorbed attention. For how long does he concentrate and what makes him stop?
- (e) Imitation of other children or of adults.
- (f) Type of play and games he chooses.
- (g) Is he good at
 - (i) Expressing himself in words,
 - (ii) Making things with his hands,
 - (iii) Singing and moving to rhythm,
 - (iv) Observing and remembering,
 - (v) Reading, writing and arithmetic.

Give actual illustrations where possible.

Social Development

A. Illustrate where possible by examples:

- (i) Attitude to parents (if possible),
- (ii) „ „ a teacher,
- (iii) „ „ other adults,
- (iv) „ „ brothers and sisters,
- (v) „ „ classmates or older or younger children.

B. Does he generally play along with one other child, a large group or a small group?

C. Give examples of co-operation with others, or of withdrawals from others and quarrels.

D. For what reasons does he seek adults.

E. Is he a leader or is he submissive to others? How does he show it? Or is he independent of others?

F. Record any actual conversations you overhear between him and other children. Does he exchange ideas, give orders or for what purposes does he generally talk to them?

Emotional Development

Note any occasions which give rise to:

- (1) Anger or resentment,
- (2) Fear,
- (3) Joy,
- (4) Laughter,
- (5) Rivalry,
- (6) Jealousy,
- (7) Self-assertion.

Personality

Is the child happy and confident or shrinking and timid, persistent or easily discouraged, energetic or listless?

Describe his outstanding characteristics as far as you have been able to observe them, his stability, reliability etc. Consider both his outstanding good qualities and his special difficulties.

APPENDIX II

SUGGESTIONS FOR CHILD OBSERVATION

Make yourself as inconspicuous as possible. Do not try to stimulate the children, simply watch. Of course, respond with friendly interest if they want you to join in their play.

Make records of observation as precise as possible.

Find out age—years and months—of any child chosen for special observation.

Notice one child particularly carefully each time. Do a time sample of 10-15 minutes of his activities and speech.

Note down sex, age, position in family (if possible), general appearance, height and weight in relation to the rest of the group. Signs of care or neglect.

Observe

Motor i.e., bodily development.

e.g. Is he able to move freely or is he clumsy?

How does he wash his face? Catch a ball? Hold a pencil?

Skip? Saw wood? Climb? etc.

Language development

e.g. Does he talk jargon, single words or sentences?

Can he use conjunctions?

Does he ask questions? Of what kind?

Does he use repetition?

Does he take much notice of other children's talking and join in conversation or does he seem content to talk to himself? e.g. "I'm making a car. I'm making a car. Here's my car."

Social Response

e.g. Does he play or work alone or with others?

Does he work or play near another child without actively co-operating?

Is he aggressive or friendly?

What is his attitude to grown-ups? To children younger than himself?

Do you see any imaginative fantasy play?

Examples of sympathetic behaviour, "houses", "hospitals", "trains", etc.

Adaptive Behaviour

How does the child use materials?

e.g. What does he build with his bricks?

What does he make with clay, paint, etc.?

Does he play with sand and water?

Does he hammer nails "for the hammering" or to make something?

How does he tackle practical problems?

Give examples of behaviour showing:

Initiative, Reasoning, Remembering.

Does he try again if he fails?

What attracts his attention most absorbedly?

How long does he concentrate on one activity?

APPENDIX III

OBSERVATION SCHEDULE I

On your observation visits find out the following things and write them up in your file and bring it with you to your preparation.

1. Plan of school.
2. Type of district and child.
3. Times of school sessions.
4. Facilities available for your class, e.g. large or small classroom, or room divided by curtain.
Any small room or bit of corridor you might be allowed to screen off for a book corner?
Any place to put a Wendy House?
What can you use for a book table and a nature table?
Any cupboard space available for apparatus and waste material?
Any facilities for sand or water play?
Any push and pull toys available for playground use?
Can desks be pushed together if necessary, to give more space.
5. Can handwork periods be used for free activities?
What materials are available in the school, e.g. clay, sand, plasticine, paint, paste, paste-brushes, paper (what size, how much), crayons, scissors, cardboard, cover paper?
6. What stories, rhymes and songs do the children know?
What reading and number schemes are used?
What books and apparatus for these are available?
What stages have the various groups of children reached in them? (What stages have the individuals in your small number group reached?)
7. How are milk, rest, dinner organized?

What space and apparatus is available for P.T.?

Is there a piano available for music?

Finally, what is the daily programme of your class, i.e. time-table? Is this rigid, or can it be adapted if necessary?

OBSERVATION SCHEDULE II

Consider

Type of neighbourhood.

School building: i.e. new, old, converted.

1. *Building and Equipment*

Lighting, heating, ventilation.

Cloakroom and lavatory accommodation.

Classrooms — size in relation to class.

Can room be adapted for activities?

Furniture, i.e. desks or tables, cupboards.

Play material and equipment.

2. *Link with the community*

What contact do children have with the community e.g.

visits to places of local interest, docks, post office etc.

Visits from blacksmith, policeman, etc.?

Is there a Parents' Association? Do the parents visit freely?

Medical services available, e.g. doctor, dentist, school nurse, child guidance clinic.

3. *Age range of children*

Number in each group or class.

What materials are available?

How day is planned?

4. *Children*

Are the children self-reliant e.g. are they encouraged to do things for themselves?

- Can they fetch their own materials from cupboards etc.?
- Do they help themselves in toilet matters?
- Are their occupations purposeful and with real meaning for them?
- Do they seem to be secure or do they continually demand attention?
- What is their attitude to each other? To the grown-up?
- Are they aggressive or friendly?
- Are they purposeful or effortless?

APPENDIX IV

SOCIAL STUDIES COURSE

(All tutors co-operate in running course)

General Aim

To select some of the more powerful influences and "educative agencies" affecting the lives of children, and to give some idea of their importance as a basis for the rest of the college course.

These influences may be grouped as follows:

1. *Physical and material circumstances*

- (a) The natural and historical features of a neighbourhood.
- (b) Housing conditions.
- (c) Occupations of parents; the nature of their work and their resulting standard of life.

2. *The Home*

- (a) The heredity of the child.
- (b) The child's position in the family.
- (c) The family as a social group.

3. *Cultural facilities*

e.g. the church, books, the cinema, art galleries, music etc.

4. *Services provided by the community*

e.g. Education, Medical Services, Public Utilities.

• Sections 3 and 4 will cover three and six weeks respectively.

5. During the final weeks there will be a review of the whole course and of conclusions to be drawn from it.

Duration of the course

Autumn term 1948 8 weeks.

Spring term 1949 10 weeks.

Time allocated each week

Lectures and discussions	4 hours
Visits and private study	14 hours
Total	18 hours

These times are to be taken as a guide to lecturers and assessors; the actual allotment of her private study-hours will be left to each student to determine for herself.

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